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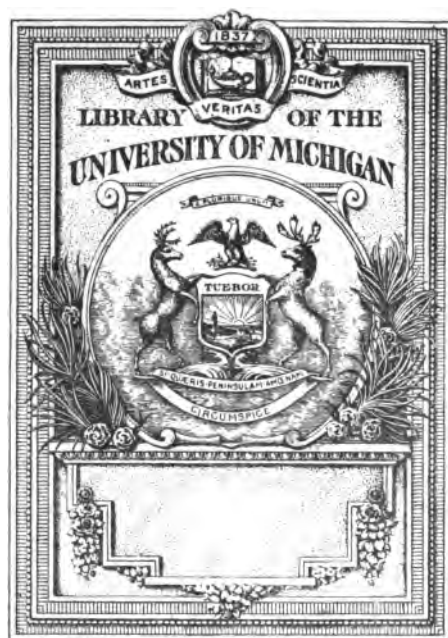
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ORAL ENGLISH

OR

THE ART OF SPEAKING

BY

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SAN JOSE, CALIFORNIA

"There can be no greater imputation on the intelligence of any man, than that he should talk from the cradle to the tomb and never talk well."

—G. J. HOLYOAKE.

D. C. HEATH & CO., PUBLISHERS

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PREFACE

This book has been written to supply a need. The vocational and civic importance of the ability to speak has been recognized by teachers of English throughout the country, but as yet the meaning of "Oral English" is rather vaguely and variously understood. We are conscious of our goal, but we lack method in our efforts to attain it. It is true that we no longer imagine that the art of speaking can be taught in a half-dozen lessons to the commencement speaker or the interscholastic debater, but we still lack that systematic basis of instruction which has already been furnished for the older subjects and which is necessary to a well-directed activity.

This text is the outgrowth of ten years of experiment and research and in its present form is the result of many careful revisions. It is hoped that it may prove to be a useful guide in the oral work of the regular four years' English course as well as in the work of the special course in Public Speaking. Suggestions as to ways in which its usefulness may be increased will be cordially accepted.

Certain features of the work are original; the chief of these are the general plan of presentation, the handling of the four forms of discourse, and the word-outline method of oral preparation described in Chapters VII and VIII. As to the remainder, the writer pleads guilty as does Kipling in the following verse:

PREFACE

"When 'Omer smote 'is bloomin' lyre
'E'd 'eard men sing by land and sea;
And wot 'e thot 'e might require
'E went and took, the same as me."

For all that which has been contributed, either consciously or unconsciously, the author is duly grateful, and especially to those who have courteously permitted the use of extracts from copyrighted material.

SAN JOSE, CALIFORNIA, *June 26, 1916.*

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ORAL ENGLISH

CHAPTER I

OUR PURPOSE IN STUDYING THE ART OF SPEAKING

Introduction. — A life without a purpose does not count for much. The sooner we decide on our aim in life the more likely are we to win success. What is true of one's life is true also of any particular work that one may undertake. If our goal is in sight, if we know just what it is we are working for, our energies are aroused and, almost without knowing it, we do harder work and so get better results. Let us, at the start, then, ask and answer this question: "Why should we study the art of speaking?" Perhaps some one will say, "I do not need to learn to speak well for I do not expect to become a lawyer, a preacher, or a statesman." I hope, however, that when you have finished reading this chapter you will agree that everyone, rich or poor, brilliant or stupid, boy or girl, should study the art of speaking.

Earning a Living. — In the first place, it will help you to earn a living, and most of those for whom this book is written will have to do that very thing. It may be that you have decided to take an engineering course. You have thought that an engineer does not need to know how to talk; that he needs merely to know how to plan and how to work. But the head of the University of

Pittsburgh, when he asked a body of engineers what they considered the most important part of a college course, received a reply about as follows: "You cannot emphasize too strongly the advantages that come to men from the ability to think on their feet, to express a well-thought-out proposition *extempore*, to adapt themselves and their conversation instantaneously to changing conditions as they arise."¹ The young man who wishes to be a successful engineer should study mathematics, it is true, but he should study also that art which will enable him to enlist the coöperation of capitalists, whose funds will be necessary to the promotion of his enterprises. Of two engineers, one may have the better plan for the building of a bridge; but, if he is unable to present its merits clearly before the city council, the other may secure the contract.

The boy or girl who intends to enter the business world has even greater need for skill in the expression of thought. The Director of High Schools in Pittsburgh addressed a circular letter to the business firms of the city, asking them to state what is most necessary in order to fit boys for success in business. Ninety-nine per cent laid stress on the advantage of being able to *write* and *speak* the English tongue accurately and forcibly. The general manager of an international business house which employs thousands of salesmen said, "I never can get enough men for the more important positions of the firm because there are so very few men who can present their own arguments clearly and overcome the

¹ This testimony, as well as that which follows from business men, has been adapted from an article written by Allan Davis and published in *The Speaker*, No. 21.

arguments of the other side without giving offence. I have three positions paying \$5000 per year and I am unable to get men of the personality to fill them." No matter what you have for sale, be it ribbons or real estate, your success will depend somewhat upon the way in which you present its worth.

Do not make the mistake of thinking that you will learn to talk after you have made your start in business. The fact that you are unable to speak for yourself may destroy your chance to make the start. The employer of to-day, whether he be a banker or a member of a school board, is not satisfied with a written application. He desires a personal interview, and that candidate is most successful who, other things being equal, is best able to present his case. If, then, we wish to belong to that class which is *wanted*, if we wish to keep out of the ranks of the unemployed, we must not only be capable but we must also know how to make our capabilities recognized.

Self-mastery. — While the ability to earn a livelihood is of primary importance and should be given first consideration in planning our education, there is scarcely a human being who does not wish to be something more than a mere healthy animal. We desire the full development of our powers. We covet that self-mastery which will place us at ease in all the circumstances of our social life. Self-command and the use of well-chosen words are marks of culture which may be exhibited in conversation as well as before an audience. This is well illustrated by the story of a poor French youth who once went in mean attire to call upon one of Napoleon's statesmen. He was received with coldness, but he showed so much intelligence in conversation that the statesman accom-

panied him to the door, saying, "My young friend, we receive an unknown person according to his dress; we take leave of him according to his merits."

When we first attempt to speak before our classmates, we usually discover that we are not masters of ourselves. Our bodies are not our faithful servants. Our knees tremble, our eyes fear to meet those of our listeners, and our hands seem too large for the pockets in which we seek to hide them. Even our minds are rebellious and refuse to act freely.

But, if we continue to practice, we shall see, both in ourselves and in others, fear giving place to confidence and awkwardness to ease. It may even be that a few who read this chapter to-day will become the Wendell Phillipses and the Henry Ward Beechers of tomorrow. Through a mastery of self they may gain the power to arouse multitudes to right action and to convert howls and hisses into applause and support. Such power can come only as a result of special gifts and diligent study. The debater who wins a few victories over a rival school has made only a beginning. The study of the art of public speech, like that of painting and music, may well be made the work of a lifetime.

Citizenship. — Although many of us have neither the ability nor the desire to become orators, we can all develop our powers so as to make of ourselves valuable citizens; and it is in this aim rather than in the winning of personal success that we shall find our highest motive for effort. Each one should wish to take an active and useful part in the life of his community and state. In our democratic nation, the one who can speak for himself and his fellows in clear, concise English will have innumerable oppor-

tunities for service. Much of the work of the world is now done through organizations. If we desire to promote the interests of a certain class or group of people, we form a labor union, a grange, a lodge, a woman's club, or a medical association. If we wish to help humanity in general, we organize a church, a Y. M. C. A., a Salvation Army, an Associated Charities, or we call a mass meeting to raise money for those who suffer from flood, famine, or war. In order that our government may be *of*, *by*, and *for* the people, we form civic and political clubs and call meetings to discuss the need of a better road, a larger schoolhouse, or a new charter. Large bodies of men and women must be moved to action. If those who are wise and good do not help to form public opinion, the unwise and the evil will do so in order to advance their own selfish interests. The *mere talker*, it is true, will always be held in contempt, but the man who can both act and influence others to action will be justly counted a most worthy citizen. Could an Abraham Lincoln or a Woodrow Wilson have given so large a measure of service to his country if he had failed to study the art of public speech?

Every group of people, large or small, young or old, must have its leaders. Each one who desires the largest usefulness should so prepare himself that when the opportunity comes to cast his influence on the side of what is wise and right he can do so with effectiveness. Opportunities will not be wanting even in the life of the school.

It is evident from the nature of the case that this influence can be exerted most advantageously in the public assembly. The man who can think only when he writes will be of little use in a crisis when important measures are to be decided. It has been said that the pen is mightier

than the sword, but it is not mightier than the tongue. As Professor Charles Sears Baldwin of Yale University says, "The greatest practical achievement of expression is still, and always will be, a great message by a great speaker."

Conclusion. — Why, then, should you study the art of speaking? Why should you study it with earnestness and perseverance, although you labor under great handicaps and are often discouraged? If you are poor, it will help you to self-support; if you are well-to-do, it will enable you to use your influence as well as your money to some good purpose. If you are brilliant, it may gain for you the privilege of molding public opinion at some great crisis in your nation's history; if you are stupid in the use of language, even the slight power which you will acquire may be the means of giving you a chance to show what you can do in other lines. If you are a boy, it will help you to live a man's largest and richest life; if you are a girl, you may be thankful that you live in an age when it is no less womanly to speak in public than it is to embroider or to cook, and that, with these larger opportunities, come greater responsibilities and greater usefulness.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

OUR PURPOSE

Introduction.

- I. Value of a purpose.
- II. The question which we should ask.

Body.

- I. Help in earning a living.
 - A. The engineer.
 - B. The business man.
 - C. The one who seeks a position.

- II. Help in acquiring self-mastery.
 - A. Our desire for self-mastery as a social grace.
 - B. Our present condition.
 - C. Our future.
- III. Good citizenship.
 - A. Opportunities open to a good speaker in a democratic nation.
 - B. The influence of a speaker as compared with that of a writer.

Conclusion.

- I. Value of a knowledge of the art of speaking to
 - A. The poor or the well-to-do.
 - B. The brilliant or the stupid.
 - C. The boy or the girl.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able in class to recite from the topical outline.

PART I—DELIVERY

CHAPTER II

VOICE TRAINING

Introduction. — Part I of this text aims to teach the student how to acquire a good delivery. A speaker is said to have a good delivery when he is well poised before his audience and when he can use his vocal organs so as to produce an audible and pleasing tone. Since ease and power in the use of the voice and body cannot be gained except by patient and diligent practice, it is well for the student to learn at the outset the principles which govern good delivery and to strive to apply them throughout his course in the art of speaking.

It is a mistake to think that one's voice, like the color of one's eyes, cannot be changed. A bad voice is, in the great majority of cases, merely a bad habit. Everyone has in his voice a musical instrument of great value. He needs only to learn how to play upon it. He may overcome the wrong habit of using his vocal instrument, as other wrong habits are overcome, by learning how to establish a correct habit.

A voice of power and charm is much to be desired. There is a general impression that the voice is an index to character. It is suspected that the boy with the breathy or high-pitched voice is lacking in manly qualities. It is thought that the girl with the harsh or nasal tone is

less feminine than her soft-voiced sister. Whether or not this is always true, we must admit that it is particularly disappointing to hear discordant tones issue from the lips of a beautiful girl or woman. If we notice the tones which we hear on the street-car, in the shops, and in the homes, we find that, unfortunately, very few people have formed the habit of using their voices correctly.

I. THE VOICE-MACHINE AND THE ORGAN

The human voice-machine has been compared to a single reed-pipe of a church organ.¹ This instrument consists of three parts, a wind-chest, a reed, and a pipe, or resonance chamber. The reed is an elastic plate in which there is a narrow slit. The air, which is pumped into the wind-chest by bellows, tries to escape through the narrow slit, thus causing the edges of the elastic plate to vibrate and produce sound. The tone so created is set free in the pipe, where it resounds and grows louder before it is permitted to reach the outer air.

The lungs may be compared to the wind-chest, the vocal cords to the reed, or the edges of the elastic plate, and the tone passage, composed of the cavities of the throat, mouth, and nose, to the resounding chamber, or pipe, of the organ.

Although these two instruments, the human voice and the organ, are very much alike, there is one great difference. Our human reed-pipe has a marvelous power of adjustment which is impossible in the organ. We can, by a slight change in the shape of the resonance chambers, change the quality of the tone so that it may express fear or courage, sorrow or joy. It is because of this wonderful

¹ W. A. Aiken, *The Voice*, p. 6.

power to respond to the thought and feeling of its owner, that we may consider the human voice the greatest of musical instruments.

II. CONDITIONS NECESSARY TO GOOD TONES

If we wish to secure tones which are musical and pleasing, and at the same time strong and audible, we must establish certain tone conditions.

Control of the Breath. — In the first place, we must learn to control the breath, or, in other words, to manage the wind-chest. The primary requisite for a good tone is a sufficient supply of air. The power to use the lungs to their full capacity depends very largely upon the maintenance of a correct bodily position. One simple direction, "Draw the chin in and up," will, if kept in mind, enable the student to maintain a correct poise. If he will follow this direction, he will notice that the head is brought to an erect position, the chest is raised, the shoulder blades are flattened, the hips are drawn back, and the weight is thrown upon the balls of the feet. This position should be maintained as the student walks to and from his seat, and, in fact, on all occasions, if it is to



become natural to him as a speaker. In order to retain it while reading, it is necessary to hold the book or notes on a level with the shoulders. If the speaker, when standing, will place his feet as in the accompanying illustration, he will have not only a genteel appearance but also a good balance. The line *a-b* should not be longer than three inches.

Having taken the correct position, the speaker should use his entire lung capacity at each inhalation. If one

uses only the upper portion of the lungs, the chest and even the shoulders will rise and fall with each breath; on the other hand, when one breathes correctly, the chest remains firm and high and the body expands and contracts at and just above the waist line.

The student must next learn how to hold and use this supply of air so that it will not escape too rapidly. After the breath has been taken in, there should be a feeling of tension about the whole torso, or central body. It may be helpful to think of the body as an elastic balloon which collapses very gradually. This sense of firmness, or elasticity about the torso, is called by singers "support of tone," "column of air," or "breath control." When speaking or reading, the student should never allow the chest to fall, but should exhaust the air from the lower part of the lungs first, renewing the supply frequently. The habit of speaking with a full chest results in a "chest tone," as distinguished from a "breathy" voice.

The Open Tone Passage. — In the second place, we must learn to open and relax the tone passage in such a way that the tones produced by the passage of the air over the vocal cords may have a chance to resound and increase before they reach the outer air, as do the tones in the pipe of an organ.

The resonance chamber of the mouth should be made as large as possible. The teeth should be separated in front about an inch, or the width of two fingers. The back part of the mouth should be enlarged also; that is, the muscles and membranes in the region next to the throat should be drawn back. If the student will follow these directions, he cannot fail to notice an increased volume and richness of tone.

Moreover, by keeping the mouth well open, he will be able to avoid poor articulation, or "mumbling." This common fault is due to inactivity of the lips. If, however, the jaws are held far apart in the production of the vowel sounds, the lips are forced to discharge their duty in the formation of the consonant sounds and good articulation is a result.

The throat must be kept open. A tense, closed throat will cause a rasping or "throaty" voice. This not only produces unpleasant sounds but also wearies the speaker himself. It is the cause of what is usually called "minister's throat." A tight throat can easily be recognized by a "click" which is most noticeable in words beginning with a vowel. In order to open the throat and prevent this "click," which is caused by the tension of the swallowing muscles, vocal teachers give various instructions, such as, "Make a tunnel of your body; feel as if about to yawn; stretch the circular muscles of your throat."

The nasal passages, also, must act as resonators. We must learn to secure nasal resonance and, at the same time, to avoid nasal "twang." The former can be secured by an attempt to "feel the tone through the whole face." The latter, nasal "twang," is caused by drawing down the soft palate and raising the back part of the tongue. This position prevents mouth resonance. It can be corrected by an attempt to keep down the back part of the tongue.

Prolonging the Vowel Sounds. — In the third place, we must not only learn to retain the breath and enlarge the tone passages, but we must apply these tone conditions to the vowels; that is, we must learn to prolong the vowel sounds.

As the consonants have very little sound value, the "carrying power" of the voice depends largely upon the quality of the vowel sounds. The habit of cutting off the vowel sounds is a common defect among untrained speakers. Their voices lack "carrying power" because they lack resonance. Even singers, who, in song, naturally prolong the vowels, sometimes have poor speaking voices for this very reason. They fail to maintain an openness of the tone passage long enough to enable the vowel sounds to be reinforced. Thus, in an attempt to secure loudness, they strain the throat muscles and produce a harsh rather than a "singing" tone.

The habit of holding the vowel sounds will, on the other hand, make the voice audible even when it is lacking in strength. Whenever we halloo to some one at a distance, we unconsciously apply this principle. The farther we wish to send our voices, the longer we hold the vowel. Those who are accustomed to addressing large audiences in the open air, speak with great slowness for this reason. The best actors, who use this method, can make even their whispered words heard in every part of the theater.

III. SKILL AS THE RESULT OF CONTINUED PRACTICE

Skill in the use of the vocal organs, like skill in boxing, tumbling, or piano playing, is a matter of slow growth and cannot be acquired in a day.

Method of Practice. — Although it is necessary for the student to understand the vocal mechanism as described in this chapter, it will not be wise for him, in trying to produce good tones, to center his thought primarily upon the voice-machine and its workings. The effort to remember so many movements to which he is unaccustomed

will in itself create a tension of the nerves that will defeat his purpose. He should, rather, let his ear assist him. He should train his ear to recognize the difference between good tones and poor tones. When about to produce a tone, he should fix his mind on the ideal tone, and his vocal mechanism will, to some extent, adjust itself to meet the mental demand. He should then listen to his own tone and compare it with his ideal. When he has discovered his fault, he should exaggerate it, noticing the sensation in his vocal instrument. In this way, he will recognize in his own body the cause of the incorrect tone. He should then try again to imitate the good tone and again notice his bodily sensations. By this method, his ear will become more and more sensitive to tonal qualities and his muscles will gradually become more and more responsive to his will.

Need of Time and Perseverance. — It always requires time and perseverance to substitute a good habit for a bad one. It is not sufficient that we use our voices rightly during the period set aside for practice in the art of speaking. The pianist who practiced with the correct movement for one hour of the day and then allowed himself to use the wrong movement for three hours would be considered extremely foolish. Every recitation, every bit of conversation, should be made an opportunity to cultivate good vocal habits. The student who uses his vocal instrument rightly on all occasions will be able, without special attention to the matter, to use it rightly on an important occasion. The more frequently he makes the effort, the more quickly will he be able to win success without effort.

All Defects can be Overcome. — Although some have larger natural endowments than others in the matter of

voice, experience has proved that there is no defect which cannot be overcome. Demosthenes, the greatest of ancient orators, had a weak chest and an impediment in his speech. According to the old story, he cured the former by reciting to the waves and running up hill, and the latter, by speaking with pebbles in his mouth.

Henry Ward Beecher, who excelled all his contemporaries both in the pulpit and on the platform, suffered, when a child, from enlarged tonsils and a small throat. His aunt says that when he came to her house on an errand, she was obliged to ask him to repeat his message several times before she could understand him. For nine years he gave constant attention to his voice. Of this period, Mr. Beecher himself says, "There was a large grove lying between the seminary and my father's house and it was the habit of brother Charles and myself to make the night and even the day hideous with our voices, as we passed backward and forward through the wood, exploding all the vowels from the bottom to the top of our voices." Later, he was able "to bewitch his audiences out of their weariness by a voice, not artificial, but made, by assiduous training, to be his second nature."

These two famous examples show us that the human voice is a musical instrument which will not only respond to the skillful player, but which will grow stronger and more flexible as a result of proper use and treatment.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) that the human voice may be compared to the reed-pipe of a church organ; (2) that if we wish to secure good tones, we must learn to control the breath, keep the tone passage open, and prolong the vowels; and (3) that skill in the use of the vocal organs is a matter of slow growth.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

VOICE TRAINING

Introduction.

- I. Reason for beginning with the study of delivery.
- II. A bad habit.
- III. Desirability of a good voice.

Body.

- I. The voice-machine and the organ.
 - A. The parts of a reed-pipe.
 - B. Their likeness to the parts of the voice-machine.
 - C. The main difference.
- II. Conditions necessary to good tones.
 - A. Control of the breath.
 1. Necessity of a large supply of air.
 - (a) Bodily position as related to air supply.
 - (b) Wrong and right way to breathe.
 2. Right use of the air supply.
 - B. The open tone passage.
 1. The open mouth.
 - (a) Its relation to articulation.
 2. The open throat.
 - (a) Bad results of a closed throat.
 - (b) Symptoms.
 - (c) Cure.
 3. Nasal resonance versus nasal "twang."
 - C. Prolonging the vowels.
 1. Ill effects of cutting off the vowels.
 2. Power to be gained by holding them.
- III. Skill as the result of continued practice.
 - A. Method of practice.
 1. Danger of centering the mind on the vocal mechanism.
 2. Method of training the ear.
 - B. Need of time and perseverance.
 - C. Possibility of overcoming all defects.

- III. C, 1. Demosthenes.
2. Henry Ward Beecher.
3. Difference between the human voice and other musical instruments.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read in the text as far as the topic, "The Open Tone Passage" and be able to recite from the topical outline.

N. B. — All vocal exercises may be taken either in a sitting or standing position (head erect, chest high, feet flat on the floor, and hands at waist).

Exercise II. — *For Deep Breathing.* (a) Inhale quickly through the nose, expanding the middle of the body. Do not raise the shoulders. At the same time, *relax* all parts of the tone passage (throat, tongue, jaw, separating the teeth but not the lips).

(b) Exhale through the mouth, the middle of the body gradually collapsing like a balloon. The chest should remain high.

NOTE. — If you find it difficult to learn this method of breathing, practice it frequently after going to bed or before rising, as you can do it more easily when lying down.

Exercise III. — Read in the text as far as Division III, and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise IV. — *For Open Mouth.* (a) Repeat syllable *fä* four times in one breath. Open the mouth as wide as possible.

(b) Inhale¹ *fä* — *g* — *ä* — *ā*

(c) Inhale *fä* — *ī* — *ē* — *ī* — *ē*

(d) Inhale *fä* — *ō* — *u* — *ōō*

In exercises *b*, *c*, and *d*, do not change the position of the jaw after giving *fä*. If necessary, insert two fingers between the teeth to prevent it. The variations in the vowel sounds are caused by changes in the shape of the tongue. Greater resonance is secured if the jaws are held open.

(e) We, wick, wack, walk. Repeat three times in one breath, opening the mouth as wide as possible.

Exercise V. — *For Open Throat and Breath Retention.* (a) oo —

¹ *fär*, *fall*, *änd*, *äte*, *Ice*, *ënd*, *ln*, *even*, *öpen*, *put*, *cööl*.

oh — ah. Repeat as many times as breath will permit. The sound "oo" has a tendency to open the throat.

(b) äh — äh — äh — äh — äh — äh. Before giving this exercise, let the throat feel as if about to yawn. The first five syllables should be short and rapidly given. The sixth should be sustained as long as possible but should not be prolonged beyond the point of comfort. Listen to the tone, trying each time to make it more resonant. If there is a "click" at the beginning of each syllable, precede the exercise with the "humming" sound *m*; then gradually make the *m* less prominent. The *m* sound has a tendency to draw the tone forward and open the throat. If this device is not successful, place the tongue forward as if to pronounce *th* at the beginning of the exercise. Listen to your tones. When you secure a particularly good one, notice the bodily sensation and try to reproduce it.

(c) Repeat Ex. (b) using the vowel sounds given in Ex. IV, *b*, *c*, and *d*.

(d) Thou — and — thou — and. If the throat is closed, the sound *a* is apt to be particularly flat and lacking in resonance. In this exercise try to keep all parts of the mouth and throat in the same position for *a* as for *ou*. Prolong each as much as possible.

(e) Give each of the following words four times in one breath: man, land, and, after, apple.

(f) Compose a sentence for each word in *e*. Try to get a resonant quality for all words but particularly for those which contain the sound *a*.

Exercise VI. — For Nasal Twang. (a) Inhale through the nose with the mouth open (soft palate is pulled down); exhale through the mouth (soft palate is raised).

(b) ng — äh — ng — äh — ng — äh — ng — äh. There are but two nasal sounds in the English language; viz., *n* and *ng*. In this exercise, the soft palate and the back of the tongue should come together as closely as possible in the pronunciation of *ng* and should separate as far as possible for *äh*. If the latter direction is not observed, *äh* will have a nasal quality. The purpose of these exercises is to increase the agility of the soft palate and reveal the cause of the nasal twang.

Exercise VII. — Using the knowledge which you have gained in this chapter, explain the following quotation: "The orator is like a

gun-barrel, which must be straight, must have a bore as large as the bullet, and must have powder below the ball."

Exercise VIII. — Complete the reading of the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise IX. — *For Pitch.* (a) Sing up the scale using any vowel sound in Ex. IV. Inhale again and sing down the scale. This exercise will help to make the voice more flexible. Many voices have an average pitch which is too high; a very few have an average pitch which is too low. The voice which is pitched too high is found most frequently among women. Nerve strain or the effort to speak loudly has a tendency to raise the pitch. *B* below middle *C* is an average pitch which is pleasing for a female voice. The average pitch for a male voice should be an octave lower.

(b) Try to find the average pitch which you habitually use; strike middle *C* on the piano (male voices one octave lower) and with that tone as your average pitch, repeat a short sentence. Experiment with several tones above and below middle *C* in the same way. If you find that your average pitch is either too high or too low, try to correct it.

Exercise X. — *Application of All Tone Conditions.* The following phrases and sentences contain thoughts which cannot be adequately expressed except by a full, rich, resonant tone. Many of the vowels are broad and for this reason easily lend themselves to conditions of resonance. The student should practice before a mirror to be sure that the teeth are an inch apart in front. If there is a tendency to cut off the vowel sound, each phrase should be chanted on one tone first; then the phrase may be repeated with the same length of tone but with speaking inflections. Practice on each until you can apply all tone conditions; viz., deep breathing with economy in exhalation and sustained resonance in throat, mouth, and nasal passages.

Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!
Ring out, wild bells, to the wild sky!
Thou too, sail on, O ship of State!
Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
God of our fathers, known of old —
Lord of our far-flung battle line —
Fight on, thou brave true heart.
Milestones mark the march of time.

Exercise XI. — For Articulation. One should articulate with nicety, but without affectation. In public speech, however, articulation must be slightly exaggerated. If you speak distinctly, you will be able to make yourself heard even if your voice is not strong. In order to improve articulation, the phrases in Ex. X may be repeated in a whisper.

Exercise XII. — Vowel A. The following phrases contain a frequent repetition of the vowel *a*, which is given with a very flat, unpleasant quality by those who have a tendency to a tight throat or a nasal twang. Repeat, giving special attention to the vowel sound *a*:

The happy man is the free man.

Dr. Talmage has drawn for you with a master hand.

I am glad that he held the balance of battle in his almighty hand.

Standing hand to hand and clasping hand.

Exercise XIII. — For Stammering. Place the tip of the tongue back of the upper teeth. Take a deep inhalation, relaxing the whole body. Know what you want to say. Speak slowly, holding the vowels.

Exercise XIV. — For Enlarging Conversational Tone. Professor E. D. Shurter says that public speaking is simply sustained and heightened conversation. There is a tendency, however, on the part of young speakers, to drop all natural inflections when they attempt to make their voices carry in a large room.

Repeat each of the following sentences:¹ first, as if to one person near by, entering as much as possible into the spirit of the thought; second, as if to one thousand people, trying to reach the man *on the back seat*, and retaining the same intonations used in the first repetition.

I never listened to such beautiful music in all my life!

I stood by you through thick and thin, and now you turn around and abuse me.

My advice is, gentlemen, to throw this whole thing up.

Let us make this the greatest organization in America. We can, we will.

¹ Taken from *Natural Drills in Expression*, by Arthur Edward Phillips.

I appeal to you, sir, was it fair?
I can assure you I appreciate your kindness.
Don't give up. You have any number of chances yet.
I entreat you, I beg of you to give me a fair hearing.

NOTE. — As has been previously stated, every conversation and every recitation should be regarded as an opportunity to cultivate right vocal habits. But, in addition, each student should set aside from five to ten minutes a day for special exercises until the voice is well under control and defects have been overcome. One should not hesitate to practice because of cold or hoarseness. The athlete does not fail to exercise his muscles because they are stiff or lame. In fact, the correct use of the voice, including deep breathing and absence of strain, will act as a curative agent.

Exercise XV. — *Written Review.* Be able to write in class upon any of the following subjects:

1. Value of Studying the Art of Speaking.
2. Comparison of the Voice with the Organ.
3. Breath Control.
4. Vocal Resonance.
5. Training the Ear.
6. Necessity of Practice.
7. Possibility of Curing All Defects.

CHAPTER III

READING

Value of Learning to Read. — Let us look at the matter first from the standpoint of one who would learn to speak. There is no quicker or easier way to train the voice than by practicing reading aloud. When we read, our minds are more at liberty to give attention to correct tone production than when we make an original speech, for both the thought and the words are furnished to us by the author. Many great orators have developed their voices in just this way. Webster began very early to read aloud and often delighted the neighbors with his ability. Rufus Choate, during a large part of his life, read aloud daily from some English author.

But aside from this consideration, the ability to read well is, in itself, of value to everyone. Those who enter public life make almost daily use of this power. The clergyman must read the Bible; the lawyer must often read long passages from previous court decisions; the legislator must read certain clauses in the bill which he wishes to discuss. Even the ordinary man or woman finds frequent use for this accomplishment. He may be called upon to act as secretary for an organization, and we all know that the secretary who does not read the minutes of a meeting so that he can be understood is a nuisance. Again, one who is a good reader may furnish an unlimited amount of pleasure to others in the home and

in social circles. But perhaps of more immediate importance is the fact that the student who reads well derives vastly more enjoyment from the study of literature than one who has not this ability.

A Set of Rules Unnecessary. — We do not need to study a set of rules in order to learn to read well; all that we need is to learn to read as we talk. If we raise our voices in reading because some one tells us to do so, we are mere machines instead of human beings. The machine moves when some force is applied from without; the human being moves because of life within.

Dr. S. S. Curry defines the art of reading aloud as "the art of turning cold, monotonous print into the living movement of conversation." It is quite evident that we do not need a rule to tell us when to raise or lower the voice in conversation. We modulate our voices unconsciously in accordance with our thoughts and feelings. We are using daily in our conversation all the inflections and qualities of tone which are necessary in our reading. If we ask a question which demands "yes" or "no" for an answer, we use the rising inflection: for example, "Did you go to town?" If we ask a question which demands some other kind of an answer, we use the falling inflection: for example, "Why did you go to town?" The quality of tone which we use is affected by our feelings. If we should hear voices in an adjoining room, even though we could not see the faces or distinguish the words, we should know, by the quality of the tone, whether the speakers were gay or sad, friendly or angry.

One Rule Only. — Professor S. H. Clark of the University of Chicago gives but one rule to his students of reading: "Get the thought; hold the thought; give the

thought." When we examine this rule closely, we find that it expresses exactly what one does in conversation. Let us take an example of a conversation which would require deep thought. If a boy should try to explain a problem in algebra to a friend, he would *get* an understanding of the problem himself before he began to explain it; he would *hold* that understanding in his mind while he was explaining it; and he would desire to *give* that understanding to his friend. Let us take an example of a conversation which would require the use of the imagination. If a boy wished to describe to his brother how Tom made a home run, he would be obliged first to *get* a mind picture of Tom making a home run by going to the game; he would then *hold* the picture in his mind while describing it; and he would desire to *give* the same mental picture to his brother. Again, let us take an example of a bit of conversation which would express feeling. If a girl should say to her mother, "I think that Mary is the nicest girl in our class," she must have had a feeling of admiration before she spoke; she would *hold* the feeling while she spoke; and she would desire to *give* that feeling of admiration to her mother.

We see, then, that a good reader is merely an interpreter, or a "go-between," revealing to his hearers the thought or emotion of the author. The reason that we are not all good readers is that we see only words on the page and do not follow Professor Clark's rule.

I. HOW TO GET THE THOUGHT

Necessity of Study. — In order to get the thought, we must study the selection which we expect to read aloud. Even an experienced reader cannot render a selection

perfectly at sight. The best actors spend many hours in studying the meaning and in trying to get the spirit of the lines which they recite.

General Study. — Our study should be, at first, of a general nature. We should seek to get the main thought of the whole selection. Before we can do this, it will be necessary to look up all doubtful words in the dictionary and to search for the meaning of historical allusions. We should next try to get the atmosphere or pervading spirit of the whole. Some knowledge of the life of the author will often assist us in this matter, as will also the circumstances under which the thought was first written or delivered. After having made these researches, we should test the strength of our grasp upon the author's thought by condensing the idea of each paragraph into a sentence expressed in our own words. This test should be used in the study of poetry as well as of prose. We shall not always be able, however, to express each stanza in a separate sentence, for it sometimes requires two or more stanzas or parts of stanzas to express a single thought.

Phrasing. — We should follow this general study by a special study of each sentence. In the first place, we should give particular attention to phrasing. This is a term applied to the division of a sentence into thought-groups. Notice that there are five thought-groups in the following sentence, and that each group adds one more detail to our picture of the situation: "When war broke out/between Spain and the United States,/it was very necessary/to communicate quickly/with the leader of the insurgents."

If we were telling this story in conversation, we should naturally pause between these thought-groups. Some

pauses, it is true, would be longer than others. The pause after "United States" would probably be the longest, while that after "quickly" would be the shortest. In general, the greater the break in the thought, the longer the pause.

Although pauses often occur at punctuation marks, these signs cannot be depended upon as reliable guides in the division of sentences into thought-groups, for punctuation is used primarily to indicate grammatical structure. For instance, in the sentence given above the pauses occur at three points where there are no punctuation marks. On the other hand, in the sentence, "He is a bright, pretty, little child," a pause after pretty would be quite unnatural, although it is followed by a comma. The character of the thought, and that only, should determine for us the position and length of the pauses.

A reader who "minds his pauses" is said to have good phrasing. The term is used also in music, where it means the grouping of tones into musical phrases, or thoughts. If one is to have good expression either in reading or in music, he must first of all have good phrasing.

Emphasis. — In the second place, we must decide what is more important and what is less important in each sentence. If the mind really grasps the relative importance of words or thought-groups, the voice will express that importance by what is called emphasis.

Let us first consider the relative importance of words. Read, for example, the following simple conversations. Notice that the same five words, "I saw your father to-day," are found in the last line of each conversation, but that in each case a different word is emphasized.

CONVERSATION I

John: "Did you see my father to-day, Mary?"

Mary: "No, I did not, John."

Teacher: "I saw your father to-day, John."

CONVERSATION II

John: "Did you talk with my father to-day, Mary?"

Mary: "No, but I saw your father to-day, John."

CONVERSATION III

John: "Did you see my father to-day, Miss Blank?"

Teacher: "No, John, but I saw your father to-day, Mary."

CONVERSATION IV

John: "Did you see my mother to-day, Miss Blank?"

Teacher: "No, but I saw your father to-day, John."

CONVERSATION V

John: "Did you see my father yesterday, Mary?"

Mary: "No, but I saw your father to-day, John."

In reading these conversations, you have probably found that, when you wished to emphasize a word, or make it important, you raised the pitch of your voice on that word. If the word had more than one syllable, the rise in pitch occurred on the accented syllable. Should you translate one of these conversations into German, French, Spanish, or any other language which you are studying, you would find the same to be true in a foreign tongue; that is, although the word order might be changed, the voice would stress the accented syllable of the important word. Sometimes the emphasis is distributed over several words; as, for example, in the sentence,

"I have brought you a *nice roasted chicken* to-day." Since the three *italicized* words are necessary to bring out the important picture, the pitch is high on all of them. Again, some words are important because they express a contrast: as, "It *rained yesterday*, but *to-day* it is *bright*."

Thought-groups. — We shall next consider the relative importance of thought-groups. A less important or subordinate thought-group is naturally pitched in a lower key: for example, "During the vacation, which lasted three weeks, I went to Chicago." If the thought-groups are arranged in the form of a climax, each more important than the preceding, the voice becomes higher on each group: for example, "I would not sell it for ten dollars, nor for fifty dollars, nor even for one hundred dollars." The Greek word *κλίμαξ*, from which our word climax is derived, means "a ladder." This very aptly suggests the climbing movement of the voice when we read a climactic series of thought-groups.

Color. — In the third place, we should study each sentence to discover the feeling that it is meant to express. If we really experience a certain feeling, it will give life, or color, to our tones. In real life, we do not describe a sunrise in the same tone in which we describe a thunderstorm; neither should we do so in reading. One author has well said, "Words represent what the speaker puts into them. If he utters *bright* dully, he contradicts truth; if he pronounces *loved* coldly, he robs it of the human warmth of itself; if he mumbles *lovely*, he dwarfs beauty."¹ Many readers who express the thought well fail to express the feeling. Dr. S. S. Curry in reference to this fault has humorously asked, "Why do men read the twenty-third

¹ Mary Angela Keyes, *Stories and Story-Telling*, p. 60.

Psalm as if it were a matter of grief that the Lord is their Shepherd? ”

The foregoing illustrations must have made it clear to the student that a great deal is involved in the first part of Professor Clark's rule, "Get the thought." It means that we must not only grasp the thought in its entirety, but that we must grasp it in its parts and must understand the relation of each part to the other parts. Furthermore, the word *thought*, as applied in this rule, has a very inclusive meaning; so that the rule might well read, "Get the picture," or "Get the feeling."

II. HOW TO HOLD THE THOUGHT

In order to hold the thought, we must take plenty of time while we are reading. A student is apt to think that the more rapidly he pronounces the words, the better he shows his ability to read. But this is a mistaken attitude. It makes no difference how well a student understands the thought; if he fails to give the thought sufficient time to express itself in his voice, his efforts, for the purposes of oral rendition, are practically wasted. He should linger over each group of words as he reads aloud, trying to realize each impression intensely and living in the enjoyment of one idea at a time. It has been said quaintly but very truly, "When thou redest, look steadfastly with the mind at the things which the words symbolize. If there be question of mountains, let them loom before thee; if of the ocean, let its billows roll before thy eyes. This habit will give to thy voice pliancy and meaning." It is, perhaps, needless to say that the reader cannot form this habit unless he forms first the habit of reading slowly. The reader should not only take plenty of time

in the actual utterance of the words themselves, but he should also allow sufficiently long pauses between thought-groups. If he is intensely realizing each idea as he utters it, it is only at the pausing places that he is able to look ahead and grasp the next idea.

III. HOW TO GIVE THE THOUGHT

The student may feel that if he has studied and understands the thought, he has made sufficient preparation for reading. In order to give the thought to others, however, he must practice the selection *aloud* over and over again. It frequently requires many repetitions of a difficult sentence before one can express the idea as if it were his own. One cannot grip the thought and feel the emotion, and, at the same time, be struggling with difficulties of tone, articulation, and pronunciation. He must remember that the words are the words of others, and that if he would make them the medium of expression, he must first make them his own.

The best results will be obtained if the student will continue to work on one sentence until he has overcome all of these mechanical hindrances and is able to hold the mind actively on the thought while he reads it. Anyone who has learned to play a musical instrument will realize the value of this advice. If one wishes to learn a musical selection in the shortest possible time, he should master it in sections, giving an especial amount of time to the more difficult portions. To play the whole selection through several times in a bungling and inaccurate way is a waste of time.

Finally, the student who would give the thought must cultivate the *attitude* of giving. He must learn to forget

himself and to desire only that his hearers may receive and enjoy the thought of the author. If he notices that he has failed to express the thought clearly, he should stop and try again. Only in this way can he become a real interpreter.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) that in order to get the thought, we must study; (2) that in order to hold the thought, we must take time while we are reading; and (3) that in order to give the thought, we must practice until we have overcome all of the mechanical difficulties.

The following quotations show that one who has mastered the art of reading is not without honor. The selections may well be memorized.

"Like music, literature needs to be re-created. Without the interpreting voice the printed page is as incomplete as the score without the orchestra." — ISABEL GOEGHILL BEECHER.

"We are all poets when we read a poem well." — CARLYLE.

"A poem is only half a poem until it is well read." — TENNYSON.

"Of equal honor with him who *writes* a grand poem is he who *reads* it grandly." — LONGFELLOW.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

READING

Introduction.

- I. Value of learning to read.
 - A. A better method of training the voice than actual speaking.
 - B. Value to the man in public life, to the ordinary man or woman, and to the student.
- II. A set of rules unnecessary.
 - A. The machine and the human being.
 - B. Definition of the art of reading.
 1. Supported by examples.

C. One rule only.

1. Examples of thought, imagination, and feeling.
2. Difference between good and poor readers.

Body.

I. Method of getting the thought.

A. General study.

B. Special study.

1. Phrasing.

(a) Meaning of phrasing.

(b) Pauses.

(1) Variation in length.

(2) Relation to punctuation.

(c) Phrasing in music.

2. Emphasis — what it expresses.

(a) Relative importance of words illustrated.

(1) The way to emphasize a word.

(2) Distribution of emphasis.

(3) Contrast.

(b) Relative importance of thought-groups.

(1) Subordinate groups.

(2) Climax.

3. Color.

(a) Definition.

(b) Examples of failure to express feeling.

II. Method of holding the thought.

A. A mistaken attitude

B. Necessity of taking time on the words.

C. Necessity of taking time between thought-groups.

III. Method of giving the thought.

A. Need of practice.

B. The best way.

C. Attitude.

Conclusion.

I. Summary.

II. Quotations.

Exercise I. — Read the text as far as the topic "Emphasis," and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Complete the reading of the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise III. — Prepare this exercise and all other exercises in reading as follows:

1. Read the whole paragraph through silently.
2. Look up and copy in your notebooks the pronunciation and meaning of any new words.
3. Look up the historical allusions.
4. Look up the life of the author.
5. Write one sentence, *using your own words*, which will give the substance of each paragraph. Do not say, "Emerson says," but write it as if you were expressing the idea yourself.
6. Divide the sentences into thought-groups, indicating the pausing places by vertical lines.
7. Underline the words which you think require emphasis.
8. Distinguish between instances in which the emphasis should be given to one word and those in which it is distributed over two or more words.
9. Notice and check any examples of words which are emphasized because they express a contrast.
10. Decide what feelings should be expressed.
11. Take the correct standing position and read each sentence *aloud* until you can read it as the author would have said it. Imagine that you are reading these selections to a very large audience and try to put into practice all of the instructions given you in Chapter II on how to use the voice. *You must practice your reading lessons aloud.* A student cannot learn to read aloud by reading silently, any more than he can learn to play the piano by sitting and looking at one.
12. Become so familiar with the text that you can look at your audience while you read the last half dozen words of each sentence. If the sentence is long, be able to look off for several words preceding the longer pausing places. Do not merely glance from the book, but really look into the eyes of your listeners.
13. As you read, try to *hold* the thought, the picture, or the feeling.
14. Forget yourself and try to *give* to others the thought, the picture, or the feeling.

1. From Henry Grady's *The New South*:

"Some one has said, in derision, that the old men of the South, sitting down amid their ruins, reminded him of 'The Spanish hidalgos sitting in the porches of the Alhambra and looking out to sea for the return of the lost Armada.' There is pathos, but no derision in this picture to me. These men were our fathers. Their lives were stainless. Their hands were daintily cast, and the civilization they builded in tender and engaging grace hath not been equalled."

2. From Ralph Waldo Emerson:

"There is a time in every man's experience when he arrives at the conclusion that envy is ignorance; that imitation is suicide; that he must take himself, for better or for worse, as his portion; that, though the wide universe is full of good, no kernel of nourishing corn can come to him but through his toil bestowed upon that plot of ground that is given him to till. The power that resides in him is new in nature, and none but he knows what that is which he can do, nor does he know until he has tried. Therefore, my text is, Trust thyself. Is it not an iron string to which vibrates every heart?"

Exercise IV. — 1. From Henry Grady's *The New South*:

"Surely, God, who had stripped him of his prosperity, inspired him in his adversity. As ruin was never before so overwhelming, never was restoration swifter. The soldier stepped from the trenches into the furrow; horses that had charged Federal guns marched before the plough; and fields that ran red with human blood in April were green with harvest in June."

2. From Webster's *Address to the Jury at the White Murder Trial*:

"Gentlemen, your whole concern in this case should be to do your duty, and let consequences take care of themselves. Your verdict, it is true, may endanger the prisoner's life, but then it is to save other lives. If the prisoner's guilt has been shown and proved beyond all reasonable doubt, you will convict him. If such reasonable doubt of guilt still remains, you will acquit him. You are the judges of the whole case. You owe a duty to the public as well as to the prisoner at the bar. Doubtless we would all judge him in mercy. Toward him as an individual the law inculcates no hostility; but toward him,

if proven to be a murderer, the law, and the oaths you have taken, and public justice demand that you do your duty."

Exercise V. — The following selections contain examples of thought-groups which are subordinate and of thought-groups which are arranged in the order of climax. Prepare to read them according to directions already given. In addition, place parentheses about each subordinate thought-group. Read the sentence, at first omitting the part in parentheses. If you have made no mistake the sentence will "make sense" without the subordinate group. Be able to point out in Selection 2 the examples of climax.

1. From Henry Grady's *The New South*:

"Let me picture to you the footsore Confederate soldier, as, buttoning up in his faded gray jacket the parole which was to bear testimony to his children of his fidelity and faith, he turned his face southward from Appomattox in April, 1865! Think of him as ragged, half-starved, heavy-hearted, enfeebled by want and wounds; having fought to exhaustion, he surrenders his gun, wrings the hand of his comrade in silence, and lifting his tear-stained and pallid face for the last time to the graves that dot the old Virginia hills, pulls his gray cap over his brow, and begins the slow and painful journey. What does he find? — let me ask you who went to your homes eager to find, in the welcome you had justly earned, full payment for four years' sacrifice — what does he find when, having followed the battle-stained cross against overwhelming odds, dreading death not half so much as surrender, he reached the home he left so prosperous and beautiful?"

2. From Webster's *Address to the Jury at the White Murder Trial*:

"The secret which the murderer possesses soon comes to possess him, and, like the evil spirits of which we read, it overcomes him and leads him whithersoever it will. He feels it beating at his heart, rising to his throat, and demanding disclosure. He thinks the whole world sees it in his face, reads it in his eyes, and almost hears its workings in the very silence of his thoughts. It has become his master. It betrays his discretion, it breaks down his courage, it conquers his prudence. When suspicions from without begin to embarrass him, and the net of circumstance to entangle him, the fatal secret struggles with still greater violence to burst forth. It

must be confessed; it will be confessed; there is no refuge from confession but suicide and suicide is confession."

Exercise VI. — The following selections are full of pictures. As you practice reading them, try to hold the pictures in mind. The selection from Robert Browning contains, according to the judgment of Edwin Markham, one of the finest lines in the English language. The thought includes about three lines. Which of the lines do you like best?

1. From *Graves*:

"I have seen the gleam from the headlight of some giant engine rushing onward through the darkness, heedless of opposition, fearless of danger; and I thought it was grand. I have seen the light come over the eastern hills in glory, driving the lazy darkness before it, till leaf and tree and blade of grass glittered in the myriad diamonds of the morning ray; and I thought that was grand. I have seen the light that leaped at midnight athwart the storm-swept sky, shivering over chaotic clouds, 'mid howling winds, till cloud and darkness and shadow-haunted earth flashed into midday splendor; and I knew that was grand. But the grandest thing, next to the radiance that flows from the Almighty Throne, is the light of a noble and beautiful life, wrapping itself in benediction round the destinies of men, and finding its home in the bosom of the everlasting God."

2. From Robert Browning's *Home Thoughts from Abroad*:

"Oh, to be in England now that April's there,
And whoever wakes in England sees, some morning unaware
That the lowest boughs and the brushwood sheaf
Round the elm-tree bole are in tiny leaf,
While the chaffinch sings on the orchard bough
In England — now!
And after April, when May follows
And the white-throat builds, and all the swallows!
Hark, where my blossomed pear-tree in the hedge
Leans to the field and scatters on the clover
Blossoms and dewdrops — at the bent spray's edge —
That's the wise thrush: he sings each song twice over
Lest you should think he never could recapture

The first fine careless rapture!
 And, tho' the fields look rough with hoary dew,
 All will be gay when noontide wakes anew
 The buttercups, the little children's dower
 — Far brighter than this gaudy melon-flower!"

Exercise VII. — *Written Review.* Be able to write in class on any of the following topics:

1. Value of Learning to Read.
2. Relation between Reading and Conversation.
3. General Study of a Reading Lesson.
4. Phrasing.
5. Emphasis.
6. Color.
7. How to Hold the Thought.
8. How to Give the Thought. .

READING LESSON I

The following address was delivered on the field of Gettysburg. To speak to a throng of people out in the open air is the most severe test to which the voice of an orator can be subjected. In the reading of this speech, the student should try to picture the situation clearly and should attempt to make his voice reach the outskirts of the crowd. Remember that this will be accomplished not by straining the throat but by a prolonged and resonant tone.

LINCOLN'S GETTYSBURG ADDRESS

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of it as the final resting-place of those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate—we cannot consecrate—we cannot hallow—this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom; and that the government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

READING LESSON II

Poetry differs from prose in that it is the expression of thought in rhythmical form. As the true poet does not sacrifice thought to form, so the true reader of poetry should not sacrifice the expression of thought to the beat of the measure. Most young readers, and some old ones, think that they must pause at the end of each line of poetry and that they must emphasize words at regular intervals. This results in a "sing-song," monotonous rendition. It is possible to feel oneself and to convey to others the rhythmic beauty of poetry and yet retain a natural expression of the thought. To accomplish this, however, one must give even more care than in prose to the division of the words into thought groups, and must make an even more earnest attempt to see the pictures and to realize the emotions. The emotions as well as the thought in the following selection should be carefully analyzed. Place in a separate sentence the thought of each of the following groups of couplets: 1-2, 3-6, 7-8, 9-11, 12-15, 16-18, 19-21, 22-25, 26-27, 28-30.

BARBARA FRIETCHIE

By John Greenleaf Whittier

1. Up from the meadows rich with corn,
Clear in the cool September morn,
2. The clustered spires of Frederick stand
Green-walled by the hills of Maryland.
3. Round about them orchards sweep,
Apple and peach tree fruited deep,
4. Fair as the garden of the Lord
To the eyes of the famished rebel horde,
5. On that pleasant morn of the early fall
When Lee marched over the mountain wall,

ORAL ENGLISH

6. Over the mountains winding down,
Horse and foot, into Frederick town.
7. Forty flags with their silver stars,
Forty flags with their crimson bars,
8. Flapped in the morning winds; the sun
Of noon looked down, and saw not one.
9. Up rose old Barbara Frietchie then,
Bowed with her fourscore years and ten;
10. Bravest of all in Frederick town,
She took up the flag the men hauled down;
11. In her attic window the staff she set,
To show that one heart was loyal yet.
12. Up the street came the rebel tread,
Stonewall Jackson riding ahead.
13. Under his slouched hat left and right
He glanced; the old flag met his sight.
14. "Halt!" — the dust-brown ranks stood fast.
"Fire!" — out blazed the rifle-blast.
15. It shivered the window, pane and sash;
It rent the banner with seam and gash.
16. Quick, as it fell, from the broken staff
Dame Barbara snatched the silken scarf.
17. She leaned far out on the window-sill,
And shook it forth with a royal will.
18. "Shoot, if you must, this old gray head,
But spare your country's flag," she said.

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19. A shade of sadness, a blush of shame,
Over the face of the leader came;
20. The nobler nature within him stirred
To life at that woman's deed and word:
21. "Who touches a hair of yon gray head
Dies like a dog! March on!" he said.
22. All day long through Frederick street
Sounded the tread of marching feet.
23. All day long that free flag tost
Over the heads of the rebel host.
24. Ever its torn folds rose and fell
On the loyal winds that loved it well;
25. And through the hill-gaps sunset light
Shone over it with a warm good-night.
26. Barbara Frietchie's work is o'er
And the Rebel rides on his raids no more.
27. Honor to her! and let a tear
Fall, for her sake, on Stonewall's bier.
28. Over Barbara Frietchie's grave,
Flag of Freedom and Union wave!
29. Peace and order and beauty draw
Round thy symbol of light and law;
30. And ever the stars above look down
On thy stars below in Frederick town!

CHAPTER IV

DECLAMATION

Introduction. — Declamation is memorized reading. The practice of declamation is another step in the direction of actual public speaking. The student continues his practice in the use of the voice and in the expression of the thoughts of others; he also meets new difficulties which are similar to those that confront a speaker. He cannot look at a book or manuscript; he must, therefore, learn to face his audience bravely. His hands are no longer occupied with the holding of a book; so he must learn to make them useful in other ways.

Since declamation is memorized reading, it is very necessary that the student learn to read a selection perfectly before he attempts to memorize it. If he does not do so, he will memorize with wrong methods of expression which it will be almost impossible to overcome.

In this chapter we shall learn: (1) how to memorize a selection in the best way; (2) how to be well-poised before an audience; and (3) how to use the body as a means of expression.

I. HOW TO MEMORIZE

Wrong Method. — The method of repeating each sentence until it goes by itself, which is the method used by most students, is faulty in several respects. The student who memorizes in this way needs frequent prompting;

for, although he has learned each sentence separately, he has failed to establish connections between them. He wastes time, also, in preparation, for his mind is apt to wander while his tongue is repeating the words. Again, he is very likely to acquire a "sing-song" or mechanical form of expression. This is due to the fact that he repeats the words in a thoughtless way; whereas the secret of good expression, as set forth in Chapter III, is to hold the thought.

Any method of memorizing is defective which is not based upon the laws that govern the action of the mind. The three most important laws of memory are as follows:

1. The law of association. — We can memorize ideas more easily if we associate them, or link them together.
2. The law of intensity. — We can memorize ideas more quickly if our minds are intense, or concentrated.
3. The law of repetition. — We can memorize ideas more perfectly if we repeat them often.

It is evident that the faulty method described in the preceding paragraph used only one of these laws, that of repetition.

The Best Method Described. — The student should divide the thought to be memorized into a few large groups, not more than three, if possible. He should then choose a word which will suggest the idea of each group, placing these words below each other at the left side of a sheet of paper, and drawing a brace after each. He should next subdivide these large groups of ideas into smaller groups, not more than three in each, and place after each brace a word that will represent the thought of the group. It may be that this second series of words will represent the paragraph thoughts. If so, he should

continue this method of subdividing and choosing key words until he has chosen a word for each sentence; or, if the sentence is long, a word for each clause. If possible, the student should choose a word that is actually found in the selection to be learned. Again, it has been found that verbs and adjectives are usually more suggestive than nouns. Not more than three words should follow a brace, because of the difficulty of remembering more than three words in a list. Moreover, the outline must be so arranged that the ideas suggested by the words which follow a brace really elaborate on the idea suggested by the word which precedes the brace. This last point is of the greatest importance. The scattering of words and braces at random on a piece of paper will be of no assistance whatever in the process of memorizing. The position of the words on the paper must represent the relation that exists between the ideas in the selection, and this relation must exist also in the mind of the student. A word outline representing the thought of the Gettysburg Address may be found in Exercise II, at the close of this chapter. The student should compare it at this point with the text of the speech itself.

After the outline has been completed, the student should repeat the entire selection with the help of the suggestive words. If he cannot express the thought in the words of the text, he should express it in his own words; that is, he should force himself to get the thought before he gets the exact words. He should then turn to the words of the author and look up those sentences or phrases which he has failed to remember. This process should be repeated until he is able to recite the selection correctly with the help of the suggestive words. It should be continued

further until he is able to give the text perfectly without the use of the outline. Finally, he should write the word outline from memory.

Threefold Value of the Method. — That the method is of value has been attested by the experience of hundreds of high-school students who have used it in the past ten years. Of all these, not one has needed the services of a prompter. This fact is evidence that the method, if followed conscientiously, will make one proof against stage fright. This terror of young speakers is a calamity that results from the attempt to memorize words without having memorized the arrangement of the thought. The tongue goes on while the mind is elsewhere. Suddenly, the tongue makes a slip and the mind realizes that it is "lost." The method described prevents this condition for two reasons: (1) the student, in making an outline, has used the law of association, or has linked the ideas together in groups; (2) during the preparation, he has expressed the thought in his own words whenever the words of the author failed to come to his mind. Consequently, if the exact words escape him on the platform, he is able to supply his own words and to continue the expression of the thought.

Again, the method has proved to be a saver of time. This follows from the fact that it requires concentration of mind. When we learn a selection sentence by sentence, our minds frequently wander; but, when we talk from an outline, we fix our minds more firmly on the thought and are more likely to exercise our imaginations in vividly realizing the pictures. In so doing, we use the law of intensity.

This habit of keeping the mind upon the thought at

the same time that the words are being learned leads to the third and most important merit of the method. It enables the student to retain the conversational style of delivery which he used when he learned to read the selection. Students frequently lose this by the old method, and acquire a monotonous, "sing-song" tone.

II. POISE

Poise may be defined as dignity, ease, and grace of bearing. It is a matter of considerable importance to both declaimer and speaker. We shall discuss it under three heads: (1) at the beginning of the speech, (2) during the speech, and (3) at the close of the speech.


At the Beginning. — As the speaker leaves his chair and takes his place on the platform, he should maintain an attitude which is at once dignified and courteous. An erect and sprightly carriage will create a favorable first impression on the audience and will also help to give the speaker confidence in himself. At the same time, his bearing should indicate a courteous acknowledgment of the fact that his auditors are conferring a favor upon him by their presence and attention.

The speaker should not be in haste to open his speech, but should first be sure that he has the attention of every one in his audience. A young speaker, because of lack of composure, is very apt to begin his speech as soon as he reaches his place on the platform. The audience has yielded its attention to a previous number on the program and each member wishes to applaud, to change his position, or to make a remark to his neighbor. As a result, the audience fails to hear the first words or sentences of the speaker and the effect of the whole is marred.

During the Speech. — Although the speaker, throughout the speech, should keep his whole body under perfect control, this does not mean that he should remain rigidly in the same position. He should turn his body from side to side, so that he may address his remarks first to one part of the audience and then to another. Occasionally, but not too frequently, he should step forward or back or to another portion of the platform. These movements seem most natural when they occur at a transition or break in the thought.

Perhaps the most important members of a speaker's body are his hands. The hands of the accomplished speaker assist his voice in emphasizing and illustrating his thought, while those of the untrained speaker merely serve to betray the nervous tension under which he labors. The inexperienced speaker tries to put his hands everywhere but in the right place. He has a strong desire to lock them behind his back, a position which has a tendency to throw the head forward, narrow the chest, and make the shoulders appear less square. If this is forbidden, he will try to put his hands in his pockets. If he has something of the swagger attitude, he puts them in his trousers pockets; otherwise, he prefers his coat pockets. A girl will try to hide her hands in her sweater or coat pockets, or, lacking these, she will play with a button or a chain.

It may be laid down as a safe rule that a speaker should do nothing with his hands that will serve to call attention to them. While it is not bad form to rest the hand quietly on a desk or table, if one is conveniently near, or to hold a card or paper in the hand, if notes are necessary, many situations will occur in real life when the speaker cannot be supplied with these aids to composure, and



he must, therefore, in his practice work, prepare for such occasions.

The student will be most successful in attaining an appearance of ease if he will endeavor, while holding the chest firm and high, to *relax* every other portion of his body. The hands will then hang easily by the sides except when they are being used to emphasize or illustrate the thought.

Let us remember that stiffness of any kind, whether of the whole body or of the hands, is caused mainly by self-consciousness. The speaker may rid himself of this handicap by adopting the attitude of one who desires to communicate ideas. He should assume earnestness if he does not feel it. In this way, many of the difficulties will disappear.

At the Close. — The speaker, in closing, should incline his head slightly toward his audience. This is a silent but necessary recognition of the courtesy of his hearers. The words "I thank you" are necessary only when one has asked the privilege of addressing an audience for the purpose of making an announcement, or for other reasons.

III. GESTURE

Its Larger Meaning. — The term *gesture* should apply not only to motions of the hand, but also to all those bodily movements which assist in the expression of thought. If one is really in earnest, or if he has caught the spirit of the author, that fact will speak in the eye and cheek and will energize the whole body. It was said of Wendell Phillips, one of the finest of extemporaneous speakers, "His pure and eloquent blood spoke in his cheek, and so distinctly wrought that one might almost say his body thought."

The Impulse to Gesture. — All true gesture is the result of impulse. One should never practice gestures for a given declamation, for the results are likely to be stiff and mechanical. It has been well said, "Earnestness is the best schoolmaster of gesture." If one is really in earnest, his gestures will be so inevitable that they will scarcely be noticed by the audience. The speaker should distinguish, however, between the impulse to express thought and the mere excitement of the occasion. For instance, young debaters sometimes argue with their hands and their heads. Some speakers of large experience, even, allow themselves to acquire a characteristic, habitual, unmeaning gesture which detracts from rather than adds to the force of the thought which they are presenting.

Dramatic Gesture. — Gestures in dramatic declamations should be suggestive rather than imitative. Most students, when they undertake dramatic representation, overdo it. They try to imitate that which they should leave to the imagination of the audience. As a result, the listeners, instead of entering into the spirit of the scene described, see only a young person wildly gesticulating before them. A. E. Phillips gives the following excellent rule: "Leave to the listener's imagination everything which the speaker's imitation would fail to fully convey, or would misconvey, or overconvey, or which in itself is self-evident, and as a corollary to this — decrease imitation and increase suggestion in proportion to the culture of the listener."

Professor Hiram Corson of Cornell University goes even farther in his condemnation of extravagant gesture. He says: "Reading is not acting. It is the acting which usually accompanies the reading or recitation of the pro-

professional elocutionist which cultivated people especially dislike. When they wish to see acting, they prefer going to the theater. When they listen to reading, they want serious interpretative vocalization; only that and nothing more is necessary, unless it be a spontaneous and graceful movement of the hands, occasionally, such as one makes in animated conversation."

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) how to memorize a selection in the best way; (2) how to be well poised before an audience; and (3) how to use our bodies as a means of expression.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

DECLAMATION

Introduction.

- I. Declamation, a step in the direction of public speaking.
- II. Necessity of learning to read a selection first.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Method of memorizing.
 - A. Wrong method.
 1. Three ways in which it is faulty; not based upon the laws of memory.
 - B. Best method described.
 1. Making an outline.
 2. Use of the outline.
 - C. Threefold value of the method.
 1. Stage fright.
 2. Saving of time.
 3. Enables one to retain conversational style of delivery.
- II. Poise — its meaning.
 - A. At the beginning of a speech.
 1. Combination of dignity and courtesy.
 2. Fault of beginning hastily.

II. B. During the speech.

1. Change of position.
2. Importance of the hands.
 - (a) Contrast between those of the trained and those of the untrained speaker.
 - (1) Faults of the inexperienced speaker.
 - (b) A safe rule.
 - (c) The best cure.
3. Evil and cure of self-consciousness.

C. At the close.

III. Gesture.

- A. Its larger meaning — Wendell Phillips.
- B. The impulse to gesture.
 1. Practice versus earnestness.
 2. Gestures caused by nervous excitement.
- C. Dramatic gesture — suggestive.
 1. Rule of A. E. Phillips.
 2. Quotation from Professor Hiram Corson.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter as far as the topic "Poise," and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Memorize the Gettysburg Address according to the method described in this chapter. Use the following outline, substituting for any word another which may be more suggestive to you:

Fathers	—	Now				
Met	{	Dedicate	—	Fitting		
		Larger	{	Struggled		
				World		
Be dedicated	{	Advanced	{	Take — Gave		
		Remaining		{	Died	
					Resolve	Birth
						Perish

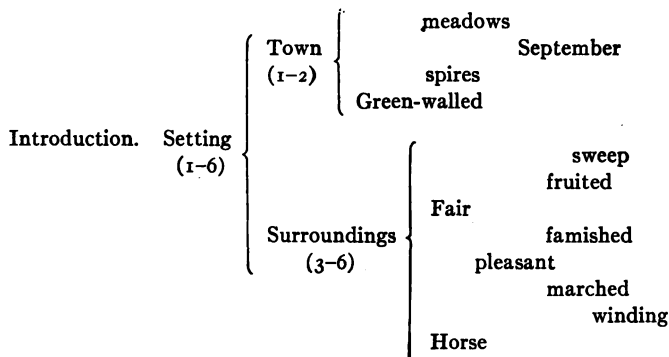
Exercise III. — The class should be divided into four sections. One of the following selections in Chapter III may be assigned to each

section: Ex. III, 2; Ex. IV, 2; Ex. V, 2; Ex. VI, 1. Make a word outline of the selection assigned to you and memorize it.

Exercise IV. — The method of memorizing described in this chapter may be applied, not only to the memorizing of a speech, but also to stories and poems, or to any choice bit of literature which one may wish to commit. The material in a story may be grouped under such headings as Setting, Incidents, and Conclusion. Compare the following outline with the poem, *Barbara Frietchie* (page 39), which is really a story in rhyme.

Introduction.		Setting (1-6)	{ Town (1-2) Surroundings (3-6)	
Body (7-21)	{	Initial Incident	{ (7-8)	
		Leading Incident	{ Act (9-11) Response (12-15)	
		Climactic Incident	{ Act (16-18)	
			{ Response (19-21)	
Conclusion (22-30)		{ Result (22-25) Reflections (26-30)	{ Change (26-27) Future (28-30)	

This outline serves to reveal the general plan of the poem; it is necessary, however, in poetry, to suggest the details by a somewhat different method from that used in prose. The rhyme and meter of a poem make it necessary to memorize the exact words. The thought is often so transposed that, if the suggestive words were placed in their logical relation, as in the outline for the Gettysburg speech, they would be of very little assistance in suggesting the exact form of the thought. It has been found helpful, therefore, to choose one word (a verb if possible) from each line and place it on the page so that it represents to the eye its position in the original line of the poem. The method described above, of reciting the thoughts from the suggestive words, may then be used. The following is an example of the way in which the first six couplets of *Barbara Frietchie* may be outlined.



Complete the outline on *Barbara Frietchie* and begin the work of memorizing the poem.

Exercise V. — Complete the memorizing of *Barbara Frietchie*.

Exercise VI. — Read the remainder of the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise VII. — Review the story of *Barbara Frietchie*. Tell it naturally, but let your body as well as your voice have a part in the telling.

Exercise VIII. — *Written Review.* Be able to write in class on any of the following topics:

1. Old Method of Memorizing.
2. Laws of Memory.
3. Description of the Best Method of Memorizing.
4. Threefold Value of the Best Method.
5. Poise.
6. Gesture.

READING LESSON III

Review the instructions for study in Exercise III, Chapter III (page 33).

The speech which follows was delivered by Charles Dickens at a dinner given in connection with the Anniversary Festival of the Hospital for Sick Children, Feb. 9, 1858.¹

Ladies and Gentlemen: — It is one of my rules in life not to believe a man who may happen to tell me that he feels no interest in children. I hold myself bound to this principle by all kind consideration, because I know, as we all must, that any heart which could really toughen its affections and sympathies against those dear little people must be wanting in so many humanizing experiences of innocence and tenderness as to be quite an unsafe monstrosity among men. I suppose it may be taken for granted that we, who come together in the name of children and for the sake of children, acknowledge that we have an interest in them. Nevertheless, it is likely that even we are not without our experience now and then of spoilt children. I do not mean of our own spoilt children, because nobody's own children ever were spoilt, but I mean the disagreeable children of our particular friends. We know what it is when these children won't go to bed; we know how they prop their eyelids open with their forefingers when they will sit up; how, when they become fractious, they say aloud that they don't like us, and our nose is too long, and why don't we go? And we are perfectly acquainted with those kicking bundles which are carried off at last, protesting.

But, ladies and gentlemen, the spoilt children whom I have to present to you after this dinner of to-day are not of this class. I have glanced at these for the easier and lighter introduction of another, a very different, a far more numerous, and a far more serious class. The spoilt children whom I must show you are the spoilt children of the poor in this great city, the children who are, every year, forever and ever irrevocably spoilt out of this breathing life of ours by tens of thousands, but who may in vast numbers be preserved if you, assisting and not contravening the ways of Providence, will help to save them.

¹ Adapted from *The Speech for Special Occasions*, by Knapp and French, pp. 21-31.

Some years ago, being in Scotland, I went with one of the most humane members of the humane medical profession on a morning tour among some of the worst-lodged inhabitants of the old town of Edinburgh. Our way lay from one to another of the most wretched dwellings reeking with horrible odors, shut from the sky, shut out from the air, mere pits and dens. In a room in one of these places, where there was an empty porridge pot on the cold hearth, with a ragged woman and some ragged children crouching on the bare ground near it, — there lay, in an old egg-box which the mother had begged from a shop, a little, feeble, wasted, wan, sick child, with his little bright, attentive eyes looking steadily at us. He seldom cried, the mother said; he seldom complained; “he lay there, seemin’ to woonder what it was a’ about.” God knows, I thought, as I stood looking at him, he had his reasons for wondering — reasons for wondering how it could possibly come to be that he lay there, left alone, feeble and full of pain, when he ought to have been as bright and as brisk as the birds that never got near him — reasons for wondering how he came to be left there, as if there were no crowds of healthy and happy children playing on the grass under the summer’s sun within a stone’s throw of him; as if there were no bright moving sea on the other side of the great hill overhanging the city. There he lay looking at us, saying, in his silence, more pathetically than I have ever heard anything said by an orator in my life, “Will you please to tell me what this means, strange man?” Many a poor child, sick and neglected, I have seen since that time in this London; but at such times I have seen my poor little drooping friend in his egg-box; and he has always addressed his dumb speech to me and I have always found him wondering what it meant, and why, in the name of a gracious God, such things should be.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, such things need not be, and will not be, if this company, which is a drop of the life-blood of the great compassionate public heart, will only accept the means of rescue and prevention which it is mine to offer. Within a quarter of a mile of this place where I speak, stands a courtly old house, where once, no doubt, blooming children were born, and grew up to be men and women. In the airy wards into which the old state drawing rooms and the family bedchambers of that house are now converted are such little patients that the attendant nurses look like reclaimed

giantesses, and the kind medical practitioner like an amiable Christian ogre. Grouped about the little low tables in the center of the rooms are such tiny convalescents that they seem to be playing at having been ill. On the dolls' beds are such diminutive creatures that each poor sufferer is supplied with its tray of toys; and, looking round, you may see how the little, tired, flushed cheek has toppled over half the brute creation on its way into the ark, or how one little dimpled arm mowed down — as I saw myself — the whole tin soldiery of Europe. On the walls of these rooms are graceful, pleasant, bright, childish pictures. At the beds' heads are pictures of the figure of Him who was once a child himself, and a poor one. Besides these little creatures on the beds, you may learn in that place that the number of small out-patients brought to that house for relief is no fewer than ten thousand in the compass of one single year. In the printed papers of this same hospital you may read with what a generous earnestness the highest and wisest members of the medical profession testify to the great need of it; to the immense difficulty of treating children in the same hospital with grown-up people, by reason of their different ailments and requirements; to the vast amount of pain that will be assuaged, and of life that will be saved, through this hospital. Lastly, the visitor to this children's hospital, reckoning up the number of its beds, will find himself perforce obliged to stop at very little over thirty; and will learn with sorrow and surprise, that even that small number, so forlornly, so miserably diminutive, compared with this vast London, cannot possibly be maintained, unless the hospital be made better known; I limit myself to saying better known, because I will not believe that in a Christian community of fathers and mothers, and brothers and sisters, it can fail, being better known, to be well and richly endowed.

This is the pathetic case I have put to you, not only on behalf of the thousands of children who annually die in this great city, but also on behalf of the thousands of children who live half developed, racked with preventable pain, shorn of their natural capacity for health and enjoyment. If these innocent creatures cannot move you for themselves, how can I possibly hope to move you in their name? The most delightful paper, the most charming essay, which the tender imagination of Charles Lamb conceived, represents him as sitting by his fireside on a winter night telling stories to his own

dear children, and delighting in their society, until he suddenly comes to his old, solitary, bachelor self, and finds that they were but dream-children who might have been, but never were.¹ The dream-children whom I would now raise, if I could, before every one of you, according to your various circumstances, should be the dear child you love, the dearer child you have lost, the child you might have had, the child you certainly have been. Each of these dream-children should say to you, "Help this little suppliant in my name! Oh, help it for my sake!" Well! And immediately awaking, you should find yourselves in the Freemasons' Hall, happily arrived at the end of a rather long speech, drinking "Prosperity to the Hospital for Sick Children," and thoroughly resolved that it shall flourish.

¹ The people whom Dickens addressed probably knew that Charles Lamb, although of a cheerful and loving disposition, had never married because he wished to devote himself to the care of a sister who had periodical attacks of insanity.

PART II — COMPOSITION

CHAPTER V

A SPEAKER'S USE OF THE FOUR FORMS OF DISCOURSE

Introduction. — Part I of this text has dealt with the subject of delivery. The student has been given practice in the delivery of the thoughts of others in order that, having partially overcome timidity, awkwardness, and vocal defects, he might be better able to deliver speeches of his own composition.

Part II deals with the art of composition. It aims to give the student an insight into the purposes of the speaker and into the methods by which these purposes can be attained most effectively.

In the present chapter we shall learn: (1) that, in the majority of cases, a speaker has persuasion as his object; (2) that, in the accomplishment of his purpose, he is likely to use all of the four forms of discourse; and (3) that he weaves them into a very definite plan. The points discussed are illustrated by reference to the speech of Dickens, the text of which is given in Reading Lesson III.

I. THE MAIN OBJECT OF SPEECH

In the majority of cases, a speaker has persuasion as his object; that is, he wishes to lead others to *believe*, to *feel*, and to *act* as he thinks they ought to *believe*, *feel*, and *act*. The Honorable James Bryce, for several years ambassador from England to the United States, and himself an able speaker, says in his *Hints on Public Speaking*

that "the two ends (or purposes) of speaking are to persuade and to delight."

To Delight is Rarely the Sole Purpose. — When we consider the different sorts of occasions upon which speeches are delivered, we find that very few are made for the sole purpose of giving pleasure. For instance, a story may be told to a group gathered about a campfire; or one who has traveled may relate his experiences in the form of a lecture, or travel-talk. These are the most important of the longer speeches which aim merely at entertainment.

There are also certain shorter speeches which are made on social occasions: for example, a speech should accompany the presentation of a gift to a favorite teacher or leader; a distinguished visitor or a convention of delegates must be received by a few words of welcome; or toasts are called for at the close of a banquet.

Persuasiveness in Great Demand. — Although occasions such as those mentioned in the preceding paragraph are decidedly important, they are few in the life of the average man. On the other hand, situations which demand persuasiveness are almost innumerable. Such occasions are constantly arising in the business world. The salesman, from the ordinary peddler up to the manager of a corporation, makes it his daily business to induce some one to transfer money from his pocket to the salesman's.

One cannot belong to an organization of anykind without realizing the value of persuasive speaking. It may be the merchant in the chamber of commerce, the farmer in his grange, or the citizen in his mass meeting, lodge, or club. Each is trying to arouse others to belief and action. Even the high-school student finds use for his persuasive ability when he rallies his fellow students to the football game,

when he solicits their subscriptions to the school paper, or when he urges their support for his favorite candidate.

The same is true of the man in public life. The lawyer seeks to move a jury; the clergyman tries to convince men of the value of righteousness; the politician talks to gain votes for his policy or party.

In view of all these facts, it would seem that Plato was right when he defined the art of public speech as "the art of ruling the minds of men."

Union of Both Aims. — The fact that persuasion is so frequently the chief aim of speech should not, however, lead us to ignore the great value of making our speeches delightful. In fact, we are much more likely to succeed in persuading if we can, at the same time, give pleasure. Doubtless if we had been present at the London dinner and heard Dickens' speech, we should have been very willing to contribute to his hospital fund and we should also have been very willing to admit that his speech had given us pleasure.

II. USE OF THE FOUR FORMS OF DISCOURSE

When we study the method by which Dickens obtained his result, we find that he used all of the four forms of discourse. All discourse, or composition, has been separated into four divisions according to the purpose for which each is used.

Description and Narration. — These two forms of discourse are used for the purpose of appealing to the feelings. Description arouses feeling because it makes the hearer or reader see a picture. If the picture is beautiful, it awakens admiration; if ugly, it creates repulsion; if pathetic, it causes a feeling of sadness. Narration, or

story-telling, goes farther than description and paints the picture of a series of events. These events are so arranged as to excite the reader's interest and put him in sympathy with the characters involved in the story.

Dickens painted vivid pictures of the little children who needed help. In this way, he made his hearers *feel* like subscribing to his hospital fund. The third paragraph of his speech may be considered either as a description or as a story. If we look at it from one point of view, he seems to be describing a poor hovel in Edinburgh, with its cold hearth and hungry, ragged occupants. The central figure in this picture is the little sick baby in the old egg-box. From another point of view, he is telling the story of his own visit to this wretched dwelling: how he came to go; how the mother secured the cradle; and what the baby seemed to say. It is of little importance for us to decide whether it is a description or a narration. Viewed in either light, it awakens our sympathy and so helps Dickens to accomplish his purpose.

Exposition and Argument. — These two forms of discourse are used to appeal to the understanding. Exposition aims to explain something, or to make it clear to the mind. Argument seeks to convince the hearer or reader that a certain fact is true or that a certain course of action is right.

Dickens used these two forms of discourse when he tried to show that the best way to help these poor little ones was to assist in maintaining the hospital. In the latter part of paragraph 4, he stated: (1) that there were ten thousand out-patients brought to the hospital every year; (2) that the physicians testified that it was much better for children to be placed in a separate hospital; and (3) that there were but thirty beds in which to accom-

moderate the sick children of the vast city of London. This portion of his speech may be regarded as either an exposition or an argument. To one who was already interested in the Children's Hospital, he would seem to be merely explaining its needs. To those who were indifferent or opposed to the project, his facts would have the nature of proof. Whichever view we take of it, we see that this portion of his discourse appeals to the understanding rather than to the feelings.

Necessity for All Forms. — Any persuasive speech which is really effective is likely to contain all four of these forms. The explanations and arguments usually form the solid framework upon which the speaker builds, while short descriptions and stories furnish the ornamentation. If the two former predominate, the speech is apt to be heavy and lacking in color and interest; if the two latter predominate, the speech may lack form and substance. Dickens seems to have provided a very judicious mixture. If he had given his listeners only the pictures and the stories, they would have been interested in the children, it is true, but they might still have objected to his method of helping them. On the other hand, he never could have won his audience to his cause by appealing to their understanding alone; it was only by the pathetic story of the little Edinburgh boy and by the wonderful picture of the little tots asleep in their hospital beds, too tired and sick to play with their toys, that he extracted from the people their treasured coins.

III. A DEFINITE PLAN

Although the persuasive speaker uses the four forms of discourse, he does not throw them together without a

definite plan. A closer examination of the general arrangement of ideas in Dickens' speech will prove this to be true. In paragraph 1, he sought by pleasantry to put his hearers in a good humor; in paragraph 2, he announced the purpose of his speech; in paragraph 3, he described the sufferings of one poor little child; in paragraph 4, he showed that there were many children in London who suffered in a similar way and who were in need of hospital care; and in paragraph 5, he brought the whole matter home by reminding them, under the name of dream children, of the children whom they loved most dearly.

It is quite evident that the pleasantry of paragraph 1, if used in any other portion of the speech, would have infused an atmosphere of insincerity and would thus have destroyed the effectiveness of the appeal. By picturing the sufferings of one poor child and then pointing out the numerous children in London who suffered in a similar way, Dickens forced his audience to multiply their sympathy by ten thousand. This could not have been accomplished if paragraph 4 had preceded paragraph 3. It is certain that he could not have referred to the dear children of our own homes in a more acceptable place than in his closing paragraph. It is to such considerations as these, we believe, that the speech of Dickens owes a large measure of its effectiveness.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) that the majority of speeches that we shall make in real life will have persuasion as their object; (2) that, if we are to be persuasive speakers, we must learn to use all of the four forms of discourse; and (3) that we must learn to weave these four forms into a very definite plan.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

A SPEAKER'S USE OF THE FOUR FORMS OF DISCOURSE

Introduction.

- I. The purpose of Part I.
- II. The purpose of Part II.
- III. The subject matter of the present chapter.

Body.

- I. The main object of speech. — Hon. James Bryce.
 - A. Pleasure as the sole purpose.
 1. Long speeches of this nature.
 2. Short speeches.
 - B. Great demand for persuasiveness.
 1. In the business world.
 2. In organizations.
 3. In public life.
 4. Plato's definition.
 - C. Union of both aims.
 1. Example of Dickens' speech.
- II. Use of the four forms of discourse. — Basis of division.
 - A. Description and narration.
 1. Purpose.
 2. Definition of each.
 3. Used by Dickens.
 - B. Exposition and argument.
 1. Purpose.
 2. Definition of each.
 3. As used by Dickens.
 - C. Necessity for all forms.
 1. Value of each.
 2. Judicious mixture.
- III. A definite plan.
 - A. Dickens' plan in detail.
 - B. Reasons why it is the best plan.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the entire chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

READING LESSON IV

1. Extract from the speech, *Conciliation with the Colonies*, by Edmund Burke, in which the great English orator is trying to convince his fellow members in Parliament that it would be to England's advantage to yield to the demands of the American colonies (March 22, 1775):

"Look at the manner in which the people of New England have of late carried on the whale fishery. Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis' Straits, whilst we are looking for them beneath the arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold, that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen Serpent of the South. Falkland Islands, which seemed too remote and romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place in the progress of their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that whilst some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries; no climate that is not witness to their toil. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people; a people who are still, as it were, but in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood."

2. Extract from a speech by Abraham Lincoln when he was running for the office of Senator from Illinois against Stephen A. Douglas (July 9, 1858):

"'A house divided against itself cannot stand.' I believe this government cannot endure permanently, half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved, I do not expect the house to fall, but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest

the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction; or its advocates will push it forward till it shall become alike lawful in all States, old and new, North as well as South."

3. Extract from an address, "The Public Duty of Educated Men," delivered by George William Curtis at the commencement exercises of Union College, June 27, 1877. In the part of the address which immediately precedes this extract, he says that the educated man should not only go to the polls and vote, but that he also owes it to his country to take an active part in the nomination of candidates, in order that knaves may not be permitted to get control of the government. He then continues:

"But, Gentlemen, when you come to address yourselves to these primary public duties, your first surprise and dismay will be the discovery that, in a country where education is declared to be the hope of its institutions, the higher education is often practically held to be almost a disadvantage. You will go from these halls to hear a very common sneer at college-bred men; to encounter a jealousy of education as making men visionary and pedantic and impracticable; to confront a belief that there is something enfeebling in the higher education, and that self-made men, as they are called, are the sure stay of the state. But what is really meant by a self-made man? It is a man of native sagacity and strong character, who was taught, it is proudly said, only at the plow or the anvil or the bench. He is Benjamin Franklin, the printer, or Abraham Lincoln, the rail-splitter. They never went to college but nevertheless, like Agamemnon, they were kings of men, and the world blesses their memory.

"So it does; but the sophistry here is plain enough although it is not always detected. Great genius and force of character undoubtedly make their own career. But because Walter Scott was dull at school, is a parent to see with joy that his son is a dunce? Because Sir Robert Walpole gambled and swore and boozed at Houghton, are we to suppose that gross sensuality and coarse contempt of human nature are the essential secrets of a power that defended liberty against Tory intrigue and priestly politics? Was it because Abraham Lincoln had little schooling that his great heart beat true to God and man, lifting him to free a race and die for his country?"

4. From the eulogy of General Grant by Horace Porter:

"Outside that house the street was filled with marching men and martial music. Inside that house the old chief lay on a bed of anguish, the pallor of death already beginning to overspread his illustrious features. The hand which had seized the surrendered swords of countless thousands was scarcely able to return the pressure of a friendly grasp; the voice which had cheered on to triumphant victory the legions of American manhood was no longer able to call for the cooling draught which slaked the thirst of a fevered tongue. And prostrate upon that bed of suffering lay the form which in the new world had ridden at the head of conquering columns; in the old world had marched through the palaces of crowned heads with the descendants of a line of kings rising and standing uncovered in his presence."

CHAPTER VI

THE SPEAKER'S EQUIPMENT

Introduction. — Equipment is a term applied to that which a person carries with him to help him accomplish his work. The woodchopper carries an axe; the artist carries paints, brushes, and canvas; the speaker must equip himself with *ideas* and with *words* with which to express those ideas. The equipment of the speaker cannot be purchased at the shop or studio but must be gradually gathered and hoarded, one thing here and another there. It is told of Webster that, after his masterful reply to Hayne, he was asked how much time he had given to preparation and he answered, "All my life." A speaker is rewarded for his effort, however, by the fact that his equipment will never wear out like that of the woodchopper or the artist, but will grow richer and finer with time and use.

If it took a lifetime for Webster to gather his equipment, it is needless to say that the young speaker should waste no time in making a start. The attitude which a speaker should take toward this matter has been well expressed by Nathan Sheppard: "An editor says, 'I never come upon a thought, a fact, or an incident without asking myself how I can get an article out of it.' The speaker says, 'How shall I use it for an audience?' He should be the most alert-minded man in the world. He should get into the habit of picking up something

from everybody and everything and everywhere. A robin should not be more industrious in gathering insects for her young."

In this chapter we shall learn: (1) how to gather an equipment of ideas; (2) how to gather an equipment of words; and (3) how to preserve our collection.

I. HOW TO GATHER AN EQUIPMENT OF IDEAS

An equipment of ideas may be gathered from three sources: from our high-school studies, from the world-life about us, and from our own minds.

Studies. — The studies which you are pursuing daily in your high-school course, and which you may have regarded as tasks especially provided to deprive you of your freedom, are the very sources from which speakers throughout the centuries have gathered material for their speeches.

Let us consider, first, the so-called culture studies — history, literature, and languages. The speeches of George William Curtis are filled with historical facts. In the brief passage quoted in Reading Lesson IV, he used four historical facts to support his claim that a lack of education and culture is not a cause of greatness. The pages of history are open to you as they were to him. How delightfully Dickens referred, in the latter part of his speech, to the essays of Charles Lamb! You will have the privilege, during your high-school course, not only of reading Lamb's essays, but also of exploring the whole rich field of English literature. Perhaps you are studying Latin or some other foreign language. Why should not the ideas, customs, and stories of these other peoples, old yet always new, provide your speeches with color and ornament?

Let us consider next the field of science. Notice how much knowledge of geography and astronomy is shown in the passage from Edmund Burke. It would seem that with the wealth of illustration which he had at his command, he could not have failed to convince the members of Parliament that the people of New England were an enterprising people. Learn to levy tribute on your scientific studies in the same way.

The difficulty is that we are apt to look at these lessons as so many facts to be crammed for an examination, whereas we should seek to glean from them material for future use. Washington Irving says of his fat Van Twiller, "His cheeks had taken toll of all that had gone into his mouth." Why should not your mind, in the same way, take toll of these daily assignments?

World-life. — It is not alone from books, however, that the speakers of the past and of the present have gathered their equipment of facts and ideas. They have come into the closest possible touch with the great world-life about them. Lincoln's biographers say of him, "He would stop in the street and analyze a machine . . . clocks, omnibuses, languages, paddle-wheels, and idioms never escaped his observation and analysis." As a result of this habit of close study of the things which he saw, his speeches are full of quaint, homely comparisons. We have seen that Dickens, also, was very observant. He noticed that the porridge pot was empty and that the baby's cradle was not merely a box, but an egg-box. It is because he saw and recorded these small details that his word-pictures take such hold on the mind and heart.

The great majority of us have not yet formed this

valuable habit of observation. The best way to cultivate it is to write each day a few sentences descriptive of whatever has arrested one's attention since the preceding day. Robert Louis Stevenson says of his boyhood, "As I walked, my mind was busy fitting what I saw with appropriate words; when I sat by the roadside, a pencil and a penny version book would be in my hand to note down the features of the scene . . . I had vowed that I would learn to write. That was a proficiency that tempted me; I practiced it as men learn to whittle, in a wager with myself. Description was the principal field of my exercise; for to anyone with sense, there is always something worth describing, and town and country are but one continuous subject." Those of us who have read *Treasure Island*, *Travels with a Donkey*, or any other of his charming tales, are very glad indeed that Stevenson made this wager with himself.

Originality. — We have seen that the young speaker has, in his daily lessons, an almost unlimited supply of speech-making material; and that if he will but cultivate the habit of keen observation, he may find all about him that which will give life and interest to his discourse. He may also discover a third source of ideas in his own mind. Perhaps you will say, "I am not original"; but originality does not mean the production of something absolutely new; it means the production of new combinations of things. Electricity has always existed, but the phonograph and the electric car did not exist until a certain combination was made in the mind of Edison. If a student will take time to *think* about that which he reads and observes, his mind, too, will produce original ideas.

II. HOW TO GATHER AN EQUIPMENT OF WORDS

Use of the Dictionary. — One of the best ways to gather an equipment of words is to study the dictionary. It is said that when O. Henry was living among the cowboys and without access to books in general, he spent two years in studying the dictionary and in forming its words into sentences. Although the student, under ordinary conditions, would not find this an attractive or perhaps a desirable method of enlarging his vocabulary, he can, nevertheless, do much more than he usually does, through its use, to increase his mastery of the English tongue. When he happens upon a new word, he should look up its meaning and pronunciation and try to make it a part of his own equipment. When he is writing a letter or composing a speech, he should try to cultivate a feeling for the right word. If the one which occurs to his mind is not satisfactory, he should look it up in the dictionary and decide whether or not any of its synonyms would be better adapted to his purpose. Daniel Webster had cultivated this feeling for the right word, as is shown by the following story: "Once while addressing an audience, he had difficulty in finding just the word he wanted. He discarded one after another until five or six had been disposed of, when suddenly he found the word he had been so earnestly seeking. As he gave expression to it, the audience, who had mentally followed his anxious search, burst out into spontaneous applause."¹

Usage of Good Authors. — Although we can get the *meaning* of words from the dictionary, it is only by read-

¹ Grenville Kleiser, *How to Develop Power and Personality in Speaking*, p. 63.

ing good books and listening to good speakers that we can realize the *appropriateness* of words. Let us notice a few of the things worth knowing, which the careful study of a good writer or speaker can reveal to us.

In the first place, he adapts his words to the nature of the idea that he wishes to express. Commonplace things are described with commonplace words, whereas ideas that are abstract or dignified in their nature are expressed by words of an abstract or dignified character. Dickens, for instance, when he wishes to describe a simple, homely scene, uses short, homely words: "In a room in one of these places, where there was an empty porridge pot on the cold hearth, with a ragged woman and some ragged children crouching on the bare ground near it, . . ." When, however, he wishes to express a thought which is more abstract and dignified, he uses longer words of more stately quality: for example, "You may read with what a generous earnestness the highest and wisest members of the medical profession testify to the great need of it, to the immense difficulty of treating children in the same hospital with grown-up people, by reason of their different ailments and requirements." Young writers and speakers are often tempted to use elaborate words to express simple ideas. The result is a style which is "high-flown" and ridiculous.

In the second place, a good writer or speaker uses a variety of words to express the same idea. He does not make the same word "do duty" too frequently. For example, Dickens, when he first describes the sick child in Edinburgh, speaks of him as *feeble* and *wan*, but later he refers to him as *drooping*.

In the third place, a writer or speaker who succeeds in

making an impression uses a great many words that create pictures. Such words are sometimes called concrete, or specific, as distinguished from abstract or general words: for example, Mr. Curtis, instead of saying "taught by hard labor," said, "taught, only at the plow, the anvil, or the bench." Instead of describing Sir Robert Walpole as a profligate, he told us that he "gambled and swore and boozed." Adjectives that describe motions have also this quality of calling up mental pictures. For instance, Dickens speaks of "attentive eyes" and "bright moving sea." Burke, instead of referring to icebergs, speaks of "tumbling mountains of ice."

III. HOW TO PRESERVE A COLLECTION

Although much of what one reads, observes, and thinks becomes a part of himself and cannot be taken away, yet it would be quite impossible for the average person to carry all of this material in his mind and have it ready for immediate use. It is therefore necessary to make a collection of words and ideas as one would collect bird-eggs or postage stamps. Many of the great writers and speakers, as Hawthorne, Lowell, and Phillips Brooks, kept notebooks throughout their lives. In these they recorded such ideas as they had gathered from reading and travel, together with their own meditations. This, every successful writer and speaker must do. The modern student, however, has evolved a somewhat more useful method of preserving this material than is found in the old notebook system.

Form of the Collection. — The student should provide himself with loose sheets of paper about 3 x 5 inches or smaller. One can buy this already cut from a stationer or

job printer, or he can utilize old notebooks for the purpose, cutting the paper himself. He should then purchase a package of manila envelopes large enough to hold the paper easily. One should be very careful in this matter, as it will be found very annoying to be obliged to fold the paper or to crowd it into a small envelope. The collection should be kept by itself, where it can be distinguished from algebra papers and unanswered letters. Perhaps very few students are so fortunate as to own a writing desk with pigeon-holes. This is of small importance, however, as a shoe-box or a starch-box will do as well. It is only necessary that the collection be kept in a definite place and that it grow.

Method of Collecting. — Just as a collector of bugs carries a net and a bottle when he goes for a walk, so the student-speaker should carry an envelope filled with sheets of paper. When he happens upon a good story, a humorous anecdote, an apt quotation, an interesting fact, he should note it down. Each item should be placed on a separate slip of paper. One sheet of paper may be kept for words which impress the student as being particularly good words for his own future use. Another sheet may contain new words which are to be looked up at some convenient time. Valuable newspaper clippings also may be kept in this way. When the envelope is filled with notes, the student should transfer the notes to his treasure box, refill his envelope with blank sheets, and begin again.

Method of Classifying. — A collection is of small value unless the specimens are classified so that the owner can readily find what is wanted. A few envelopes can be labeled at the start, as follows: Stories, Facts, Proverbs,

Quotations, Words, etc.; another envelope may be labeled with some subject in which one is particularly interested, as machinery, wild flowers, musical history, or art. Some day, when time hangs heavy, it will be a real pleasure to look over the notes and place them in the proper envelopes. As the collection grows, it will sometimes be necessary to re-classify. One envelope will grow more rapidly than another and will become so crowded as to need division. Some notes will be discarded later on as of little value. For these reasons it is best to write the labels in pencil.

The student who adopts the above-described method of preserving his treasures of thought will find that, while old notebooks gather dust in garret or cellar, the classified collection of notes becomes a constantly increasing source of help and inspiration.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) how a speaker may gather an equipment of ideas; (2) how he may gather an equipment of words; and (3) how he may preserve this equipment in the most useful form.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE SPEAKER'S EQUIPMENT

Introduction.

- I. The equipment of the speaker compared with that of the woodchopper or the artist.
- II. The attitude which a speaker should have.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. How to gather an equipment of ideas.
 - A. Studies — used by speakers of the past.
 1. Culture studies.
 2. Scientific studies.
 3. Wrong and right attitude compared.

- I. B. World-life.
 - 1. Illustrations of the power of observation.
 - 2. Method of cultivating the habit of observation.
- C. Originality.
 - 1. Definition.
 - 2. How to be original.
- II. How to gather an equipment of words.
 - A. Use of the dictionary.
 - 1. O. Henry.
 - 2. New words.
 - 3. Synonyms. — Daniel Webster.
 - B. Usage of good authors.
 - 1. Appropriateness.
 - 2. Variety.
 - 3. Picture-making words.
- III. How to preserve a collection. — Custom of old writers and speakers.
 - A. Form of the collection.
 - B. Method of collecting.
 - C. Method and value of classifying.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the text as far as the topic "How to Preserve a Collection," and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — 1. Dickens tells us that the little baby should have been "as bright and as brisk as the little birds that never got near him." Look up *brisk* in a large dictionary and copy the synonyms. Consider each from the standpoint of *meaning*, *appropriateness*, and *sound*, and show, if you can, that Dickens chose the best word.

2. Think of and write some more ordinary word which you would probably have used for each of the following, if you had been trying to express Dickens' thoughts: *toughen* its affections, *prop* their eyelids, *contravening* the ways of Providence, *humane* members, *reeking* with horrible odors, *crouching* on the bare ground, *courtly* old house, *flushed* cheek, *toppled over*, *shorn* of their natural capacity, that it shall *flourish*.

If you do not remember the connection in which these expressions were used, look them up in the speech. If you cannot easily supply a synonym, look up the word in the dictionary.

Exercise III. — Complete the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline. Provide yourself with paper and envelopes for your collection, labeling the envelopes as directed.

Exercise IV. — *Written Review.* Be able to write in class on any of the following topics:

1. The Chief Object of Speech-making.
2. How Dickens Used the Four Forms of Discourse.
3. How They are Fitted into a Plan.
4. Our Studies as a Source of Ideas.
5. The World-life as a Source of Ideas.
6. Originality.
7. Gaining a Vocabulary by a Study of the Dictionary.
8. Gaining a Vocabulary by a Study of the Best Authors and Speakers.
9. How to Make a Speaker's Collection.

CHAPTER VII

HOW TO PLAN A SPEECH

Introduction. — A good speech, whether it is one minute or one hour in length, must have three qualities: (1) unity, which means that the gist or substance of it can be stated in one sentence; (2) coherence, which means that each idea leads naturally to the next, so that it can easily be followed by the audience; and (3) emphasis, which means that there is a gradually increasing force throughout the speech.

In this chapter we shall learn: (1) how to lay the basis for these qualities when we make a plan; (2) the best way to make a plan; and (3) the difference between the plan for an argument and the plan for an exposition.

I. HOW TO PLAN FOR UNITY, COHERENCE, AND EMPHASIS

Unity through Choice of a Subject. — The speaker can lay the foundation for unity by choosing a subject that deals with only one thing. A speech on the subject "Motion Pictures" might have unity, whereas it would be impossible to present a unified discussion of the subject, "The Method of Taking Motion Pictures and their Influence on the Public."

At the same time the subject must not cover too large a field to be handled effectively in the time allotted. A speaker could not treat the subject of "Motion Pictures" successfully in two minutes. He would be obliged to

touch on a large number of ideas in such a brief way as to prevent his giving an impression of unity. With such a restricted time limit, it would be necessary to narrow the subject, that is, to discuss only one phase of it. One might, for instance, discuss in two minutes any one of the following topics: "Methods of Taking Motion Pictures of Wild Animals," "Educational Value of Motion Pictures," and "A Motion Picture I Have Seen."

Unity of Purpose. — In real life, when a speaker chooses a subject, he has a definite purpose in view: he desires either to instruct, to convince, or to entertain. It is true that he may use instruction and entertainment as an aid to conviction, — such we found to be Dickens' method, — but some one purpose will be predominant. In practice speaking, the student should choose his subject with a definite purpose in mind. He should test the unity of his purpose by writing the gist of what he has to say in a single sentence, called the topic or theme sentence. Let us consider a few illustrations. If a student were to discuss "Methods of Taking Motion Pictures of Wild Animals," his purpose would be mainly that of instruction and his theme sentence might be, "It requires great patience and daring to take pictures of wild animals." If a student were to speak on "The Educational Value of Motion Pictures," his purpose might be to convince the members of the Parents' Club that they should allow their children to attend a certain moving picture performance. His theme might be, "Our moving picture show will teach your children in one hour more than they could learn in many days of reading." The theme sentence will be determined largely by the nature of the material which the speaker has at his disposal, unless he

should wish to look up material to illustrate and develop his theme. It should be clear, however, from the foregoing discussion, that if the speech is to have unity, the subject, the purpose, the theme sentence, and the speech material should coincide.

Unity in Development. — The speech is an elaboration or a development of the theme sentence. The introduction furnishes a means of unity in that it either suggests the main thought or is an actual statement of the main thought. Since the introduction to a two-minute speech should not consist of more than one sentence, it is well in practice work to use some version of the theme sentence as the introduction. This may in some cases seem abrupt, but it will help the beginner to secure unity, and a more artistic method may be studied later.

The body of the speech should be an expansion of the main idea. The theme sentence may be enlarged upon in several ways: (1) it may be repeated several times in different words (See Reading Lesson IV, 2, page 65); (2) it may be illustrated by facts (See Reading Lesson IV, 1, page 65); and (3) it may be compared with something else (See Chapter III, Ex. VI, Selection 1).

It is very essential in this expansion that not a single thought be allowed to enter which does not have a close relation to the main thought. James Russell Lowell has said very tersely on this point, "The art of writing consists in knowing what to leave in the ink pot."

The conclusion, if rightly developed, is a further means of strengthening the unity of the speech. It may be either a re-statement, in varied language, of the topic sentence, or it may simply make reference to the main idea.

Coherence. — A speech is coherent, as we have already learned, if each idea leads naturally to the next, so that the audience can easily follow the line of thought. If a speaker is to lead his audience, he should first consider the state of mind of his audience. In a practice speech, the student should imagine a particular audience, determine upon an appropriate salutation, and proceed to adapt his speech to his hearers. The character and arrangement of one's material should vary with the nature of the audience. For instance, one would not discuss "Aeroplanes" before a board of engineers in the same way that he would before a boys' literary society.

After the speaker has considered his ideas from the standpoint of the experience and intelligence of his audience, he should arrange them in what seems to be the most natural order. In so doing, he should take note of the following rules: (1) A general statement should be made before the details which illustrate it. (2) The easy should be stated before the difficult. (3) The earlier in time should be mentioned before the later. We found that Dickens' speech was so coherent that any change in the order of his ideas would injure it. The student-speaker should test the coherence of his speech by trying various methods of arrangement.

Emphasis. — Frequently the most coherent order is also the most emphatic order; that is, it results in an impression of gradually increasing force throughout the speech. This can be effected, in some measure, by arranging the ideas in the order of strength, the strongest last. It is also necessary to develop the important ideas at greater length than the unimportant ideas.

II. THE BEST METHOD OF MAKING A PLAN

Jottings. — After having chosen his subject, the student should jot down one key word for each idea as it occurs to him. The student who has not tried this method will be tempted to write down quite full notes or at least several words for each idea. To do this would be a mistake. It is not necessary that the exact wording be determined upon until after the plan has been made. The words are to be jotted down merely as temporary suggestions to the speaker himself, and as there is always one word used in the expression of an idea which is more suggestive than any other word, several words will merely be cumbersome — a fact which will be seen more clearly later.

The speaker should not try to arrange his ideas in order before he places the key words on paper, for the purpose of the jottings is merely to reveal to the speaker the nature and amount of his material. The act of putting down the words will also help him to concentrate his mind. The work of arrangement will come later.

Theme Sentence. — The student should next try to write a theme sentence that includes the ideas suggested by the words. This will help him to determine his purpose and to unify his material. If there are any ideas which cannot be included in the theme sentence, the words which suggest them should be crossed out.

Word-brace Outline. — The remaining words should be arranged in the form of a word-brace outline.¹ It will be found possible to group the ideas under main divisions and subdivisions. In this work, the student should follow as far as possible the suggestions already made

¹ See Appendix I for an example of such an outline.

with regard to coherence and emphasis. The following matters of form also should be observed:

(1) There should not be more than three main divisions nor more than three subdivisions after any brace. A violation of this rule makes the speech difficult for both speaker and audience to remember. Four or five divisions can always be grouped under two larger divisions.

(2) The ideas suggested by the words which follow a brace should relate to and enlarge upon the idea suggested by the word which precedes the brace. This is a matter of the utmost importance. The brace itself by its very form indicates that the words included within its prongs enlarge upon the word to which it points. To transgress this rule, then, is to indicate an untruth. Where but one idea is used to enlarge upon another, the dash is used instead of the brace.

(3) As far as possible there should be only one word for each sentence. If a young speaker plans to make several sentences about one word, he is apt to give insufficient care to their arrangement and construction. Again, if he allows himself this freedom, he may fail to keep within his time limit. If, on the other hand, he uses more than one word for each sentence, his outline will be cumbersome. If it were necessary for him to look at it while speaking, the large number of words would be confusing, while if he should decide to be independent of an outline, the added words would make the matter difficult to memorize.

III. DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE PLAN FOR AN ARGUMENT AND THE PLAN FOR AN EXPOSITION

Argument. — Each of the main divisions of an argument must prove or give reasons for the theme sentence. Let us take as an example the following simple argument:

- I. Mary's father should allow her to go to the party, because
 - A. She has not attended a party for two months.
 - B. It will not interfere with her lessons, because
 - 1. It is on Friday night.
 - C. Only very nice young people will attend.

When a student makes a plan for an argument, he should write out in form similar to the example given above not only the theme sentence, but also a complete sentence for each one of the main subdivisions. In so doing, he must be sure that each subordinate sentence can properly be joined to the theme sentence by the word *for* or *because*. If they can be so joined, he will know that his main divisions prove his theme and that, therefore, his plan is logical.

Exposition. — The main divisions of an exposition need merely relate to or explain the theme sentence. Let us consider such a simple announcement as the following, which might be classified as an exposition:

- I. The Girls' Literary Society is going to give a party.
 - A. It will be given in the Social Hall on Friday night.
 - B. The hall has been decorated with the society colors.
 - C. There will be a literary program followed by dancing.

It can easily be seen that these subdivisions merely add to and do not prove the theme sentence. Although it is sometimes helpful to write out the subordinate sentences when one is planning an exposition, it is not absolutely necessary as it is in the planning of an argument.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) how the speaker can lay the foundation for unity, coherence, and emphasis when he makes his plan; (2) how to make a plan for a speech in the form of a word-brace outline; and (3) how the plan for an argument differs from the plan for an exposition.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

HOW TO PLAN A SPEECH

Introduction.

- I. Three qualities of a good speech defined.
- II. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. How to plan for unity, coherence, and emphasis.
 - A. Unity.
 1. Choice of a subject.
 - (a) One thing only.
 - (b) Narrow field.
 2. Purpose — Its relation to the subject, theme sentence, and speech material.
 3. Development.
 - (a) Introduction.
 - (b) Body.
 - (1) Methods of expansion.
 - (2) Relation of thoughts to main thought. — Lowell.
 - (c) Conclusion.
 - B. Coherence.
 1. Nature of audience.
 2. Natural order — rules.
 - C. Emphasis.
- II. The best method of making a plan.
 - A. Jottings.
 1. One word only.
 2. Purposes of the jottings.
 - B. Theme sentence.
 - C. Word-brace outline — three rules.
- III. Difference between the plan for an argument and the plan for an exposition.
 - A. Argument.
 1. Relation of subdivisions to theme sentence.
 2. Necessity of writing subdivisions.
 - B. Exposition.
 1. Relation of subdivisions to theme sentence.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — 1. Study the text as far as the topic "Coherence," and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. A short speech written out would make a paragraph. Choose from the selections for reading in Chapter III the three best paragraphs from the standpoint of unity. Choose only those whose topic sentences are placed first and whose closing sentences either refer to the main idea or summarize it in different words.

3. Consult Appendix II. Choose from Divisions I or II, or any other list which represents material that you have studied in High School, two topics which you think are too large to be handled in two minutes. Narrow these subjects; that is, write down two or more phases of the subject which might be handled in the time allotted.

Exercise II. — 1. Complete the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. Review the Gettysburg Address (page 38) and Reading Lesson IV, 4 (page 67), and be able to prove the following:

a. The ideas are arranged in the most coherent order.

b. The ideas are arranged in the most emphatic order.

c. More time is given to the important than to the unimportant ideas.

Exercise III. — Select a subject from Appendix II. It may be one that you narrowed in Exercise I, or any other that you prefer. Decide upon the nature of your audience, whether it is to be an assembly of high-school students, grammar-school students, an organization of adults, etc. Determine upon and write an appropriate salutation. Write a theme or topic sentence. If your subject is argumentative, write a subordinate sentence for each main division and be sure that each can properly be joined to the topic sentence by *because*. Prepare a word outline for a two-minute speech on the subject. Write this whole exercise on a separate sheet of your loose-leaf notebook. (See example in Appendix I.)

CHAPTER VIII

ORAL PREPARATION

Introduction. — There are two methods of practice which are valuable to one who would learn to speak well. The first is called the impromptu method. This is frequently used in literary societies. A member is assigned a subject and requested to speak without previous notice. Henry Clay made a very profitable use of this method. It was his custom to read daily one chapter from some historical or scientific book and then go out immediately to the cornfield or to the stable, where he would repeat the selection aloud in his own language.

The merits of the impromptu method are evident. Such practice cannot fail to quicken the mind and increase one's command of language. Its defects, however, are quite as obvious. In the first place, it gives little practice in the arrangement of thought and, if used exclusively, is apt to lead to a habit of rambling discourse. Again, there are occasions for which preparation is necessary. As Mr. J. Berg Esenwein says, "Don't wait to dive for pearls of thought until you mount the platform — it might be painful to the audience."

Although the speaker should nerve himself occasionally to an impromptu effort, he should rely mainly upon what has been called the extempore method. This kind of preparation will be fully explained in this chapter, but it may briefly be described as oral composition

based upon a word-outline. It may be used whenever the speaker is given sufficient time to gather and arrange his ideas.

The subject of oral preparation will be discussed under the following headings: (1) description of the extempore, or oral method of preparation, (2) value of this method as compared with that of writing and memorizing one's thoughts, and (3) the written speech as a last step.

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE EXTEMPORE METHOD

Mental Preparation. — The speaker should *think* through his speech, using an outline prepared as directed in Chapter VII. His purpose in this should be to phrase each idea as perfectly as possible. The student may think that he cannot polish his phrases unless he writes them, but he should remember that whether he composes orally or in writing, it is his mind that does the polishing and not his pen. If the student wishes to cultivate a good style, he should persevere during this part of his preparation until he gets a satisfactory expression of his ideas. Not even the greatest among us can without effort produce what is worth while. That master of style, Robert Louis Stevenson, once wrote in a letter, "Yesterday, I was a living half hour upon a single clause and I have a galaxy of variants that would surprise you." All of this painstaking has its reward in the end, for, as Thomas W. Higginson says, "For intellect in the rough, there is no market."

Oral Practice. — When the student has determined upon the best way to express each idea, he should practice the whole speech aloud several times. The exact number of times will depend upon the experience of the speaker

and the importance of the occasion. The beginner should repeat his speech not less than five times. This practice will accustom the speaker to the sound of his own voice and give him confidence and fluency.

There are, however, two dangers in oral composition against which the student must guard himself. He may have a tendency to repeat aloud crude or ungrammatical expressions. To avoid this, he should *think* a sentence through before he utters it. The untrained speaker is afraid that a pause will be considered hesitation, and so often rushes headlong into the expression of a thought before it has matured in his own mind. The polished, extemporaneous speaker, on the other hand, pauses long between his sentences, well knowing that the audience will have no quarrel with him for his deliberation. The second danger is quite the opposite of the first. He may hold so critical an attitude toward his own work that he will be led to reconstruct a sentence in the midst of it. To avoid this, he should compel himself to finish a sentence, no matter how poorly it may have been commenced. It will be possible to make mental note of the error and correct it during the next practice.

The student should not be discouraged if he does not repeat the speech twice in the same words. In fact, this may be an evidence of freedom and growth. The purpose of the repetition is not to memorize a certain phraseology, but to develop the power of expression. If the student's mind is active, the speech will gradually assume a somewhat definite shape, which will be the speaker's best form of expression at the given time.

Outline Memorized. — The last step in preparation is to write the word-outline from memory. This memorized

outline should record any changes which it has been found necessary to make during the oral practice.

A speaker should be absolutely independent of an outline; for attention to notes takes his eyes from his audience and subtracts just so much from the personal element. In commenting on speeches delivered in the House of Commons, Charles Seymour says, "The speeches that were really listened to, that were enjoyed, that carried the force of conviction, were the speeches that were spoken without reference to notes." Thomas W. Higginson discusses this same matter as follows: "Never carry a scrap of paper before an audience. The late Judge B. R. Curtis once lost a case in court of which he had felt very sure — one in which John P. Hale was his successful antagonist. When asked the reason, he said, 'I had all the law and all the evidence, but that fellow Hale somehow got so intimate with the jury that he won the case.' To be intimate with your audience is half the battle, and nothing so restricts and impedes that intimacy as the presence of a scrap of paper." On very important occasions one may have an outline within reach, but he should strive to be independent of it.

II. VALUE AS COMPARED WITH THE MEMORITER METHOD

The extempore method of preparation is better than the method of writing and memorizing a speech in several respects:

A Saver of Time. — When one writes a speech, he often finds that it is necessary to rewrite long passages. When the speech is finished, he discovers that it is too long and must be condensed, or that certain portions need elaboration. Perhaps whole paragraphs must be copied verbatim

in order that these changes may be made. When, however, one composes a speech by the oral, or extempore method, the work of correction is a very simple matter. It is necessary only to add, or cross out, or change the position of a few words in the outline and the revision is complete.

A Better Speech. — Furthermore, a speech prepared in this way is likely to produce a better impression upon the audience than one which has been written and memorized. In the first place, the delivery will be better: it will be more conversational in tone, since the mind, during the period of preparation, has been centered upon the thought rather than upon the words. Again, the speaker is not likely to become lost and forget his speech entirely as might be the case with a memorized speech. The extempore practice has served not only to impress the organization of his thought upon his mind, but also to give him confidence in himself so that if he fails on the platform to recall the prepared words he can supply others of equal merit.

In the second place, the style of a speech which has been composed orally has a tendency to be more direct and forcible and better suited to public utterance. When one writes, he is tempted to construct sentences which are long and involved. These, when delivered, give to the speech an air of bookishness and take from it the appearance of spontaneity which the speaker desires.

In the third place, the speech is more flexible; that is, it can more readily be adapted to the occasion. The speaker may insert ideas suggested by other numbers on the program, or if the time is short he may omit unnecessary portions of his subject. Neither of these things could he do if he were in the grip of a memorized speech.

Growth of the Speaker. — Above all, the extempore method is the only method which insures the growth of the speaker. A man may spend a lifetime in writing and memorizing speeches and still be without extemporaneous power. This power "to think on one's feet," comes gradually as a result of practice and confidence. As Sir Francis Bacon says, "Reading maketh a full man, writing, an exact man, and speaking, a ready man." This is shown in the lives of great orators. Webster and Lincoln, very early in life, were members of debating clubs. Charles James Fox, the greatest debater of his day, made it a rule to speak once each night in Parliament.

The ordinary student, however, is not provided with a Parliament ready to hand and so must furnish himself with an imaginary audience. This repeated practice gives the speaker confidence when he appears before a real audience. As Nathan Sheppard says, "To realize their presence in an effort of the imagination is to fortify against their faces in the flesh." Each time the student rehearses before his imaginary hearers he gains power to master both himself and some future audience.

III. WHEN A SPEECH MAY BE WRITTEN

It is safe to say that a speech prepared for the classroom should never be written before it is delivered, although to write it after it is delivered is a very profitable exercise in written composition.

For important occasions, however, the speech may be written before delivery, but only as a *last* step in the preparation, after all has been done that can be done by the method of extemporaneous practice. It may be

possible by writing out the speech at the last to secure a diction that is more concise and elegant, and at the same time not to lose the value of the extemporaneous practice. The speech will then be in form to preserve or publish.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) how to prepare a speech orally from an outline, (2) why this method is better than that of writing and memorizing, and (3) under what circumstances and at what period of preparation a speech may be written.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

ORAL PREPARATION

Introduction.

- I. The impromptu method of practice.
 - A. Use of.
 - B. Merits and demerits.
- II. Extempore method — briefly defined.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Description of the extempore method.
 - A. Mental preparation.
 1. Purpose.
 2. Care illustrated.
 3. Polishing without a pen.
 - B. Oral practice.
 1. Number of times.
 2. Two dangers.
 3. Discouragement.
 - C. Outline memorized.
 1. Changes.
 2. Value of independence of outline.
 - (a) Seymour.
 - (b) Higginson.

II. Value as compared with the memoriter method.

A. A saver of time. — Difficulty of revising a manuscript.

B. A better speech.

1. Delivery.

(a) Conversational style.

(b) Greater confidence.

2. Style — compared with written.

3. Flexibility.

C. Growth of the speaker.

1. Two causes.

(a) Bacon.

(b) Experience of orators.

2. Imaginary and real audiences.

III. When a speech may be written.

A. Classroom work.

B. Important occasions.

Conclusion — Summary.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Prepare a two-minute speech by the extempore method, using the outline which you made in connection with the preceding chapter. Time yourself. Be sure to bring the speech within the required limit. Have your outline ready to hand in at the beginning of the period.

As the speeches are given in class, each student should make note of criticisms in his loose-leaf notebook and preserve them until after they have been discussed in class.

Answer the following questions with reference to each speech:

1. Did it have unity? If so, the critic should be able to state the main idea.

2. Was it well arranged? If it was, the critic should be able to give one example of coherence or emphasis.

3. Did it contain concrete material? If so, the critic should be able to mention some illustration or some picture-making word.

In these and future criticisms, do not make too much use of the words *good* and *poor*. Say, rather, that the speech was either

1. Clear or confused.
2. Smooth or disjointed.
3. Concrete or dry.
4. Direct and conversational, or bookish.
5. Compact or wordy.
6. Earnest or tame.

It is well to give favorable criticisms before adverse criticisms, for the one who is criticized will listen more willingly, if he knows that his good points are appreciated. Again, the critic should be looking for the good in order that he may imitate it.

READING LESSON V

NARRATIVES

1. "Conservatism," by George William Curtis:

"A friend of mine was a student of Couture, the painter, in Paris. One day the master came and looked over the pupil's drawing and said to him, 'My friend, that line should go so'; and indicated it lightly on the paper with his pencil. To prove the accuracy of the master's eye, the pupil rubbed out the correction and left the line. The next day Couture came, and looking over the drawing, stopped in surprise. 'That's curious,' said he, 'I thought I altered that. This line goes so,' he added, and drew it firmly in black upon the paper. Again the pupil rubbed out the correction. The next day the master came again, stopped short when he saw the drawing, looked at it a moment without speaking; then, with his thumb-nail, he cut quite through the paper. 'That's the way this line ought to go,' he said, and passed on.

"So the hearts and minds of our fathers marked the line of our true development. Conservatism rubbed it out. The Missouri struggle emphasized the line again. Conservatism rubbed it out. The Kansas struggle drew the line more sternly. Conservatism rubbed it out. Then, at last, the Divine finger drew in fire and blood, sharply, sharply, through our wailing homes, through our torn and bleeding country, through our very quivering hearts, the line of liberty, and justice, and equal rights, and conservatism might as well try to rub out the rainbow from the heavens, as to erase this, the decision of the age."

2. From a eulogy of Daniel O'Connell by Wendell Phillips:

"Besides his irreproachable character, O'Connell had what is half the power of the popular orator; he had a majestic presence. In his youth he had the brow of a Jupiter or a Jove, and the stature of Apollo. A little O'Connell would have been no O'Connell at all.

"These physical advantages are half the battle. You remember the story Russell Lowell tells of Webster when, a year or two before his death, the Whig party thought of dissolution. Webster came home from Washington and went down to Faneuil Hall to protest;

and four thousand of his fellow Whigs went out to meet him. Drawing himself up to his loftiest proportions, his brow charged with thunder, before that sea of human faces, he said: 'Gentlemen, I am a Whig, a Massachusetts Whig; a Faneuil Hall Whig; a Revolutionary Whig; a constitutional Whig; and if you break up the Whig party, where am I to go?' 'We held our breath,' says Lowell, 'thinking where he could go. If he had been five feet three, we should have said, "Who cares where you go?"'

"Well, O'Connell had all that. There was something majestic in his presence before he spoke, and he added to it what Webster had not, — the magnetism and grace that melts a million souls into his.

"Then he had a voice that covered the gamut. Speaking in Exeter Hall, London, I once heard him say, 'I send my voice across the Atlantic, careering like the thunderstorm against the breeze, to tell the slaveholder of the Carolinas that God's thunderbolts are hot, and to remind the bondman that the dawn of his redemption is already breaking,' and you seemed to hear his voice reverberating and re-echoing back to London from the Rocky Mountains. Then, with the slightest possible Irish brogue, he would tell a story that would make all Exeter Hall laugh. The next moment, tears in his voice, like an old song, and five thousand men wept. All the while no effort — he seemed only breathing, —

'As effortless as woodland nooks
Send violets up, and paint them blue.'

3. From an Address to the Jury at the White Murder Trial, by Daniel Webster:

"The circumstances now clearly in evidence spread out the whole scene before us. Deep sleep had fallen on the destined victim and on all beneath his roof. A healthful old man to whom sleep was sweet, the first sound slumbers of the night held him in their soft but strong embrace. The assassin enters, through the window already prepared, into an unoccupied apartment. With noiseless foot he paces the lonely hall half lighted by the moon. He winds up the ascent of the stairs and reaches the door of the chamber. He enters and beholds his victim before him. The face of the innocent sleeper is turned from the murderer, and the beams of the moon, resting on the gray

locks of the aged temples, show him where to strike. The fatal blow is given. Without a struggle or a motion the victim passes from the repose of sleep to the repose of death. The murderer retreats, retraces his steps to the window, passes out through it as he came in, and escapes."

DESCRIPTIONS

4. The Home and the Republic, from an address delivered at Elberton, Georgia, in June, 1889, by Henry W. Grady:

"I went to Washington the other day, and as I stood on Capitol Hill my heart beat quick as I looked at the towering marble of my country's Capitol. The mist gathered in my eyes as I thought of its tremendous significance, — the army, the Treasury, the courts, Congress, the President, and all that was gathered there. I felt that the sun in all its course could not look down upon a better sight than that majestic home of the Republic that had taught the world its best lessons in liberty.

"Two days afterwards I went to visit a friend in the country, — a modest man, with a quiet country home. It was just a simple, unpretentious house, set about with great big trees, encircled in meadow and field rich with the promise of harvest. The fragrance of pink and hollyhock in the front yard was mingled with the aroma of the orchard and of the garden. The air was resonant with the cluck of poultry and the hum of bees. Inside was quiet, cleanliness, thrift, and comfort. Outside there stood my friend — master of his land and master of himself. There was his old father, an aged, trembling man, happy in the heart and home of his son. I saw the night come down on that home, falling gently as from the wings of an unseen dove. The old man, while a startled bird called from the forest, and the trees shrilled with the cricket's cry, and the stars were swarming in the sky, got the family around him, and taking the old Bible from the table, called them to their knees, while he closed the record of that simple day by calling down God's blessing on that family and that home.

"While I gazed, the vision of the marble Capitol faded. Forgotten were its treasures and its majesty, and I said, 'O, surely, here in the hearts of the people at last are lodged the strength and responsibilities of this government, the hope and promise of this Republic.'"

5. Description of Robert E. Lee, by John W. Daniel:

"In personal appearance General Lee was a man whom once to see was ever to remember. His figure was tall, erect, well proportioned, lithe, and graceful. A fine head, with broad, uplifted brows, and features boldly yet delicately chiselled, bore the aspect of one born to command. His whole countenance bespoke alike a powerful mind and an indomitable will, yet beamed with charity, benevolence, and gentleness. In his manners, quiet reserve, unaffected courtesy, and native dignity made manifest the character of one who can only be described by the name of gentleman."

6. Description of Havana, by Senator A. B. Cummins:

"General Lee, after a cheery conversation, parted the window curtains and invited his visitors to a tiny balcony overhanging the street. The view was enlivening. The Prado was bathed in the effulgence of electric lights, and the statue of Isabella adorning the oblong park fronting the hotel looked like an alabaster figure. All was life and activity. A cool breeze came from the ocean. A stream of well-dressed ladies and gentlemen poured along the Prado — the dark-eyed señoras and señoritas with coquettish veils, volunteers, regulars, and civil guards, in tasty uniforms, and a cosmopolitan sprinkling of Englishmen, Germans, French, Italians, and other nationalities, Americans being conspicuous. Low-wheeled carriages rattled over the pavements in scores, many filled with ladies *en masque* on their way to the ball. Occasionally the notes of a bugle were heard, and anon the cries of negro newsboys, shouting 'La Lucha!'"

7. "A Vision of War," by Robert G. Ingersoll:

"The past rises before me like a dream. Again we are in the great struggle for national life. We hear the sounds of preparation — the music of boisterous drums — the silver voices of heroic bugles. We see thousands of assemblages, and hear the appeals of orators. We see the pale cheeks of women, and the flushed faces of men; in those assemblages we see all the dead whose dust we have covered with flowers. We lose sight of them no more. We are with them when they enlist in the great army of freedom. We see them part with those they love. Some are walking for the last time in quiet woody places, with the maidens they adore. We hear the whisperings and

the sweet vows of eternal love as they lingeringly part forever. Others are bending over cradles, kissing babes that are asleep. Some are receiving the blessing of old men. Some are parting with mothers who hold them and press them to their hearts again and again and say nothing. Kisses and tears, divine mingling of agony and love! Some are talking with wives, and endeavoring with brave words, spoken in old tones, to drive from their hearts the awful fear. We see them part. We see the wife standing in the door with the babe in her arms — standing in the sunlight sobbing. At the turn of the road, a hand waves — she answers by holding high in her loving arms, the child. He is gone, and forever."

CHAPTER IX

HOW TO PLAN A STORY OR A DESCRIPTION

Introduction. — A good speaker uses many short stories and descriptions. These two forms of discourse are powerful because they make mental pictures. Dickens, as we saw in an earlier chapter, made a deeper impression by his picture of the sufferings of one little child in Edinburgh than he did by the statement that there were thousands of miserable children in London.

A speaker's purpose in using these forms may be to arouse feeling, as in the case just cited, or it may be merely to make his idea more clear and impressive. Wendell Phillips, for instance, quoted the story of Webster for the purpose of showing that a large man would have more power over his audience than a small one. Grady used a description to make it clear that the strength of the nation is to be found in its homes.

A good story or description has the same three qualities that are found in a good exposition or argument, namely, unity, coherence, and emphasis. In this chapter we shall learn how to get these three qualities when we make a plan.

I. NARRATION

Unity. — A short story, in order to have unity, must consist of a single incident. This is merely one way of saying that it should occur within a brief space of time, that the action should center about one particular place, and that there should be a central character.

The story should also have a point, or meaning. The speaker should be able to state this point in a theme sentence, although it would not be advisable to do so while telling the story. This warning is illustrated by the prayer of Henry Van Dyke: "Lord, let me never tag a moral to a story, nor tell a story without a meaning." The theme of Curtis's story might be, "The eye of the master artist is correct." The point in Webster's story of the murder was, "The deed was prearranged and committed in a stealthy and cowardly manner." The story of Barbara Frietchie might be condensed into the sentence, "The courage and patriotism of Barbara Frietchie compelled even a rebel leader to do her homage."

Coherence. — The problem of securing a coherent arrangement is not so difficult in a story as it is in the other forms of discourse, since the time order is the natural one to follow. The only danger is that some incident which is not a link in the chain may find a place in the story. In order that the story should move on toward the climax, each happening should be a result of some earlier event and the cause of a later one. Facts which do not help the story along in this way should be omitted, for they interfere with its coherence.

Emphasis. — The quality of emphasis, as we learned in a previous chapter, means gradually increasing force. It can be gained in a story by reserving the point until the last. The events should be so arranged as to keep the listener in suspense until the climax is reached, at which place the point, or meaning of the story, is revealed. In the story of Couture, the climax is found in the sentence, "Then, with his thumb-nail, he cut quite through the paper." In the story about Webster, "We held our

breath, thinking where he could go" seems to reveal the point of the story. In Webster's story of the murder, "The fatal blow is given" marks the highest point of interest.

II. DESCRIPTION

Unity. — A good description has within it some unifying idea; that is, it leaves with the listener a very definite impression. This result is gained by the fact that the speaker has chosen from among numerous details those which will tend to deepen the impression that he wishes to make. The artist in colors does not paint Nature exactly as it is; he chooses and arranges those features of the landscape which can be fitted into his conception of beauty. So with the descriptive artist: he should not record everything which may be seen, but he should direct attention to those details which tend to make prominent a certain idea. Thus Wendell Phillips, in his description of Webster, might have told us the color of his hair or eyes, but because his purpose was to give an impression of power, he mentioned only the lofty proportions and the brow charged with thunder. In Senator Cummins' description of Havana, the unifying idea is that of life and activity, whereas in Robert Ingersoll's "Vision of War" the central thought is the sadness of farewell.

Again, a good description, like a good picture, contains a central object of interest. In Dickens' description of the wretched hovel, it is the child in the egg-box; in Grady's picture of the country home, it is the old man with the Bible; in "A Vision of War," it is the wife with the babe in her arms.

Coherence. — When we studied exposition and argument we learned that one could gain coherence by men-

tioning the general before the particular. The same is true of descriptive discourse. The speaker should give a general view before going into details. Mr. Daniel, for example, begins his portraiture of Robert E. Lee with the sentences, "In personal appearance, General Lee was a man whom once to see was ever to remember. His figure, etc." This order is easier to follow and therefore more coherent, because it is the order in which one gains a mental picture of an object which is actually before his eyes. As one approaches a building, for instance, he notices at first glance the general form, size, and color. Later, he observes details. Victor Hugo begins his famous description of the field of Waterloo by stating that it was shaped like a capital A.

In order that the listeners may the more easily follow the description, the speaker should observe the following three rules: (1) he should proceed with the details in some definite order, as, near to far, left to right, etc.; (2) he should not change his own point of view without notifying his audience of the change; and (3) he should not describe details which cannot be seen from the point of view which he has chosen.

Emphasis. — The quality of emphasis will be present in a description if the most impressive detail is given last and treated at greater length. If the student will again examine Dickens' description of the wretched dwelling in Edinburgh, Grady's sketch of a country home, and Ingersoll's "Vision of War," he will find that this plan has been followed in each case. The central figure is mentioned last and more time and greater care is given to its delineation.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned how to

plan a story or a description in such a way as to secure the three desirable qualities — unity, coherence, and emphasis.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

HOW TO PLAN A STORY OR A DESCRIPTION

Introduction.

- I. Picture-making value.
- II. Two purposes illustrated.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

I. Narration.

A. Unity.

1. Single incident.
2. Point or meaning.

B. Coherence.

1. Time order.
2. Quality of moving on.

C. Emphasis.

1. Meaning.
2. Method of gaining. — Illustrations.

II. Description.

A. Unity.

1. Unifying idea, or impression.
2. Central object of interest.

B. Coherence.

1. General idea before details.
2. Three rules for details.

C. Emphasis.

1. Necessity of two things.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Let the class be divided into three sections. Let each section read one of the following Bible stories: The Sword of the Lord and of Gideon (*Judges*, vii., 1-22); Absalom, My Son (*2 Samuel*, xviii); The Handwriting on the Wall (*Daniel*, v).

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Study the story which has been assigned to you. Be able to tell it in your own words in not more than three minutes. Make a word outline of the story and practice from it as directed in the preceding chapter. The *introduction* to a story usually includes the time, the place, and the characters. The *body* may be divided into *initial incident*, *rising action*, and *falling action*.

Be prepared to answer the following questions about the story which you have studied:

1. What is the theme of the story?
2. Is it a single incident, *i.e.* does it occur within a brief space of time, at a particular place, and does it center about one character?
3. Is there any event which is not a necessary link in the chain?
4. What is the climax of the story? Is the point reserved until the last?

Exercise III. — Reproduce some story or description suggested in the first three divisions of Appendix III. Make a word outline as before. If you cannot handle your subject effectively in two minutes, condense it. Write a theme sentence but, if it is a story, do not use it in the telling.

Exercise IV. — Imagine that the class is gathered around a camp fire and that each is expected to tell some experience, making it as entertaining as possible. Look for suggestions in divisions four and five of Appendix III. Prepare by making a word outline and bring the telling within three minutes.

Exercise V. — Present some idea, using a narrative or description to make the idea more clear and attractive. This was done in Extracts 1, 2, and 4 of Reading Lesson V, (pages 97-98).

READING LESSON VI

1. From Macaulay:

"The advocates of Charles the First, like the advocates of other malefactors against whom overwhelming evidence is produced, generally decline all controversy about the facts, and content themselves with calling testimony to character. He had so many private virtues! And had James the Second no private virtues? Was Oliver Cromwell, his bitterest enemies themselves being judges, destitute of private virtues?

"And what are the virtues ascribed to Charles? A religious zeal, not more sincere than that of his son, and fully as weak and narrow-minded, and a few of the ordinary household decencies which half the tombstones in England claim for those who lie beneath them. A good father! A good husband! Ample apologies indeed for fifteen years of persecution, tyranny, and falsehood!

"We charge him with having broken his coronation oath; and we are told that he kept his marriage vow. We accuse him of having given up his people to the merciless inflictions of the most hot-headed and hard-hearted of prelates; and the defense is, that he took his little son on his knee and kissed him. We censure him for having violated the articles of the Petition of Right, after having, for good and valuable consideration, promised to observe them; and we are informed that he was accustomed to hear prayers at six o'clock in the morning. It is to such considerations as these, together with his Vandyke dress, his handsome face, and his peaked beard, that he owes, we verily believe, most of his popularity with the present generation."

2. Phillips Brooks, in his address to young men on "The Symmetry of Life," says that the symmetrical life should have three dimensions, length, breadth, and height. By length, he means purpose; by breadth, sympathy for our fellows; by height, love to God. He closes as follows:

"Do not dare to live without some clear intention toward which your living shall be bent. Mean to do something with all your might. Do not add act to act and day to day in perfect thoughtlessness, never asking yourself whither the growing line is leading. But at the same time do not dare to be so absorbed in your own life, so wrapped up

in listening to the sound of your own hurrying heels, that all this vast pathetic music, made up of the mingled joy and sorrow of your fellowmen, shall not find out your heart and claim it and make you rejoice to give yourself for them. And yet, all the while keep the upward windows open. Do not dare to think that a child of God can worthily work out his own career or worthily serve God's other children unless he does both in the love and fear of God their Father."

3. W. J. Fox before the first meeting of the Corn Law League, in 1843:

"The supporters of the Corn Laws are very fond of complaining of the long speeches made by the Leaguers against them when they know they have nothing novel to say. Now, I should be very glad to effect a compromise with those objectors. I should be very ready to say to them, 'If you will spare our pockets, we will spare your intellects. If you will allow the people's mouths to be filled, we will abstain from filling your ears with their remonstrances. If you will untax our bread, we will no longer tax your patience.'

"Even the bread that is given in charity must first pay the tax imposed by these laws; and if, by a royal begging letter, some hundreds of thousands of pounds are collected for the poor of Paisley, why, the rapacity of this dominant class must needs step in and take some £30,000 of the money thus bestowed in charity. That Book which we profess to revere tells us to pray for our daily bread; therefore it cannot possibly teach men to tax our daily bread. There is one precept in that Book with the fulfillment of which these laws directly interfere; there the young man is told to sell all that he has and give to the poor. That precept it is impossible to obey in our day. The Corn Laws have rendered it impossible. It must be altered and in future it will stand: 'Sell all thou hast, and divide the proceeds between the richest and the poorest, between the pauper and the landlord.'"

CHAPTER X

THE ART OF PHRASING

Introduction. — What we have already learned about unity, coherence, and emphasis has had to do mainly with the choice and arrangement of *ideas*. In this chapter we shall learn further how to secure these artistic qualities by the choice and arrangement of *words*.

I. UNITY

Meaning of Sentence Unity. — A sentence is said to have unity when it expresses one and only one main idea. It is not hard for the speaker to secure unity when he uses the simple sentence (a sentence with one main clause). Neither is it difficult if he uses the complex sentence (a sentence with one main clause and one or more dependent clauses); for the main idea is naturally placed in the main clause. It is when the speaker uses the compound sentence (a sentence with two or more independent clauses) that he is likely to violate the principle of unity.

Correct Use of the Compound Sentence. — There are three sorts of ideas which may be expressed correctly in the form of a compound sentence: (1) A contrast may be so expressed, because the idea of difference furnishes the unifying thought. For example, in the sentence, "You worked, as a statesman, for the enemy, but I worked for my country," the main idea is that the two statesmen worked in different ways. (2) A general idea may be

illustrated by two or more clauses of similar construction. Grady, for instance, said, "Horses that had charged Federal guns marched before the plow; fields that ran red with human blood in April were green with harvest in June." The swift restoration of the South is the one general idea that is illustrated by each of these clauses. (3) Ideas which are equal and very closely related may be united in a compound sentence without marring its unity. Thus, "Webster went down to Faneuil Hall to protest, and four thousand of his fellow Whigs went out to meet him." The two acts referred to in this sentence probably occurred at the same time and were equally necessary to the situation that formed the basis of the story.

Incorrect Use of the Compound Sentence. — There are two ways in which young speakers very commonly form compound sentences that violate the principle of unity. In the first place, in telling a story they are liable to join that which follows in time to that which precedes by *and*, *and then*, or *and so*. An event which follows another in time may not be closely enough related to it to be placed in the same sentence with it.

In the second place, students often form into a compound sentence ideas which are related but which are not of equal value: as, "It was a fine day and we went for a walk." Since the fact that "we went for a walk" is the principal information which the speaker desired to give, it should have been placed in the main clause and the idea of the fine day in a dependent clause. The result would have been the complex sentence, "As it was a fine day, we went for a walk."

II. COHERENCE

Connective Words or Phrases. — We have already seen that a speaker may secure coherence by an orderly arrangement of ideas. He may also make his speech hang together by certain tricks of language. Almost every sentence should contain within it some word or phrase which makes reference to a preceding idea. Personal pronouns (*them, it*, etc.), adjectives (*such, these, this*, etc.), and conjunctions (*while, therefore*, and others listed in Ex. III) may be so used as to lead the mind easily from one thought to the next. One may use not only single words but also phrases to indicate the relation between ideas. Lincoln does this in the Gettysburg Address when he says, "*But, in a larger sense*, we cannot dedicate," etc. By this phrase, we are reminded of the narrower sense in which he treated the subject of dedication in the preceding sentences.

Parallel Construction. — By giving to similar ideas a similar or parallel construction, the speaker may help his audience to follow more easily a desired line of thought. Ideas are given a similar construction when the parts of the sentence, such as the subject, predicate complement, and modifiers, are all in the same relative positions. Chapter III, Ex. VI, Selection 1 furnishes an excellent example of the coherent value of this rhetorical method, which was a very prominent feature of Webster's style also.

Several illustrations may be found in Chapter III, Ex. IV, 2, and Ex. V, 2. Let us study one of them. Webster says, "If the prisoner's guilt has been shown and proved beyond all reasonable doubt, you will convict him. If such reasonable doubt of guilt still remains, you

will acquit him." In these two sentences the dependent clause is placed first and the independent clause varies in only one word. Let us change the order of ideas in the second sentence, and note the result. "If the prisoner's guilt has been shown and proved beyond all reasonable doubt, you will convict him. He should, however, be acquitted by you if reasonable doubt of guilt still remains." We see, by this experiment, how much Webster has gained in force, coherence, and rhythmic quality by the use of parallel construction.

III. EMPHASIS

Directness. — Emphasis, or force, may be gained by directness: (1) A direct quotation is more forcible than an indirect quotation: for example, "'Fire!' commanded Jackson," is more emphatic than, "He commanded them to fire." (2) The active, or direct form of the verb is stronger than the passive form: for example, "He distributed the papers" is more forceful than "The papers were distributed by him." (3) Conciseness gives strength; unnecessary words give weakness. For instance, "He returned to the city which he claimed as his birthplace," is weak as compared with, "He returned to his native city."

Arrangement of Words. — As the important parts of a speech are at the opening and at the close, so it is with a sentence: that which the speaker desires to emphasize should be placed near the beginning or the end of the sentence. Unimportant expressions such as "I think," or "he said," should be placed in the middle of the sentence.

Emphasis or force can be gained also by the use of climax, that is, by the arrangement of a series of words or phrases in the order of importance, the strongest last.

This was another favorite device of Webster's. Several examples are given in Chapter III, Ex. IV, 2, and Ex. V, 2.

Variety in Sentence Form. — Just as a voice is monotonous if it lacks emphasis, or variety in pitch, so one's style is monotonous if the sentences are all built on the same plan. The speaker, then, who would be forceful, or emphatic, should study the different kinds of sentence forms, together with their adaptability to certain purposes, and should seek to use as great a variety as possible.

(1) Sentences may be grouped according to grammatical structure. According to this classification they are either declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, or imperative. The *declarative* form is generally used by young speakers to the exclusion of all the other forms, with a resulting monotony of style. The *interrogative* form is especially useful to the speaker. He may sometimes use it to introduce a thought. Macaulay does this when he asks, "And what are the virtues ascribed to Charles?" He then devotes a paragraph to answering his own question. (Reading Lesson VI, 1, ¶ 2, page 108.) Again, a speaker may bring a thought to an appropriate conclusion by the question form. Emerson gains emphasis in this way when, after amplifying the thought that a man should develop his own powers and not try to imitate those of another, he asks, "Is it (the thought) not an iron string to which vibrates every heart?" (Chapter III, Ex. III, 2.) When a speaker attempts this latter use of the interrogative sentence, however, he must be sure that he has made his point so clear that his hearers can answer the question in only one way — the way in which he wishes them to answer it. The *exclamatory* sentence finds its proper place

in emotional oratory, but is seldom used in ordinary speechmaking. Macaulay uses it to express sarcasm. (Reading Lesson VI, 1, ¶ 2, page 108.) The *imperative* sentence form increases the emphasis because it enables the speaker to address his hearers directly. It may be used effectively in exhortation at the close of a speech. (Reading Lesson VI, 2, page 108.)

(2) Sentences may be classified according to length. Short sentences give clearness and simplicity of style. With this purpose in view, they can be used as topic sentences and as definitions. They also give strength, or vigor of style. With this purpose in view, they may be used in the expression of strong feeling or rapid action. A speaker may sometimes gain emphasis by using a short sentence as the last expression in the development of a thought. An excellent illustration of the effectiveness of a short closing sentence is to be found in Reading Lesson V, Selection 7.

Long sentences are useful as a means of amplifying a thought. By a long sentence, a speaker may give the details which explain a short, general statement. (Reading Lesson V, Selection 6.) He may also modify a short, extreme statement. Lincoln, for instance, makes the rather startling claim, "A house divided against itself cannot stand." Then, by the use of several long sentences, he proceeds to show exactly what he means by this statement. (Reading Lesson IV, 2.) Again, the exclusive use of short sentences would result in abruptness, whereas an occasional long sentence adds a rhythmic quality which is necessary to a pleasing style.

(3) Sentences may be classified according to the way in which the ideas are arranged. In a *loose* sentence, the

main idea is stated first, followed by the lesser, or modifying ideas. One may say that the weight, in a loose sentence, is at the beginning. This kind of sentence is used frequently in the easy, informal style of address. The only danger is that one may continue to add ideas until the sentence becomes rambling.

In the *periodic* sentence, the main idea is reserved until the last and is preceded by the lesser, or modifying ideas. In reading a truly periodic sentence, one is unable to grasp the main idea until he has reached the period. One may say that the weight of the sentence is at the end. This kind of sentence is found more frequently in the formal, dignified style of address. Since the tendency to use loose sentences is so strong, it will be well for the student definitely to practice the periodic form.

In a *balanced* sentence, there are two ideas of equal importance. One may say that the weight is equal at both ends. A balanced sentence is frequently used to express a contrast. This kind of sentence is pleasing because of its symmetry.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned that unity, coherence, and emphasis are gained not only by the choice and arrangement of *ideas*, but also by the choice and arrangement of *words*.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE ART OF PHRASING

Introduction — Advance summary.

Body.

I. Unity.

A. Meaning of sentence unity.

1. Use of simple, complex, and compound sentences.

- I. B. Correct use of the compound sentence.
 - 1. Contrast.
 - 2. General idea, illustrated.
 - 3. Ideas which are equal and closely related.
- C. Incorrect use of the compound sentence.
 - 1. Events which follow in time.
 - 2. Ideas which are equal but not closely related.
- II. Coherence.
 - A. Connective words or phrases.
 - 1. Words.
 - 2. Phrases.
 - B. Parallel construction.
 - 1. Definition.
 - 2. Example.
 - 3. Example changed.
- III. Emphasis.
 - A. Directness.
 - 1. The direct quotation.
 - 2. Active verbs.
 - 3. Conciseness.
 - B. Arrangement of words.
 - 1. Important positions in a sentence.
 - 2. Climax.
 - C. Variety in sentence form. — Voice.
 - 1. Grammatical structure.
 - 2. Length.
 - (a) Short.
 - (b) Long.
 - 3. Arrangement of ideas.
 - (a) Loose.
 - (b) Periodic.
 - (c) Balanced.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — 1. Read the text as far as Division II and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. Select and check in your book the compound sentences in Reading Lesson V.

Exercise II. — Be able in class to repeat one of the narrative speeches which you prepared in connection with Chapter IX. Revise the outline if necessary. Give special attention to sentence unity. Challenge every compound sentence; *i.e.* watch the *ands*. As the speeches are given, the class should make note of any compound sentences which should not have been so.

Exercise III. — 1. Read Division II and be able to recite from the topical outline:

2. Review the Gettysburg Address (page 38) and check all words and phrases which refer to a previous idea or which express a relation between ideas.

3. The following connectives may be classified according to the relation that each expresses between the two ideas which it connects. The relations are: time, result, possibility, comparison, opposition, concession, addition, illustration, reason, summary, etc. Use each correctly in a sentence or sentences, and place in parentheses the name of the relation which is expressed; *e.g.*:

He is not able to do it; *at any rate* he will find it very difficult. (Concession.)

The class may be divided into three sections, each section preparing the sentences for one list.

I	II	III
even if	above all	in reality
in conclusion	also	to be sure
secondly	yet	as well as
while	accordingly	in spite of
therefore	after	as a matter of fact
for instance	before	meanwhile
but	as a result	because
at least	on the contrary	of course
in general	besides	for that matter
moreover	indeed	rather
nevertheless	at the same time	still
for example	again	furthermore
hence	on the other hand	consequently
when	then	however
as soon as	somewhat later	either . . . or
thus	it follows that	neither . . . nor
although	unless	for

Exercise IV. — Be able to repeat one of the expository or argumentative speeches which you have already prepared. Revise it with special attention to coherence. Seek to gain coherence by the use of parallel constructions and connective words. As the speeches are given, the class should make note of all connective words and expressions.

Exercise V. — 1. Complete the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. Change to declarative sentences all sentences quoted or referred to under the topic "Variety in Sentence Form (1)." Notice the loss in force.

3. Find a periodic sentence in Reading Lesson VI, 1 (page 108), and change it to a loose sentence.

4. Check all balanced sentences in Reading Lesson VI, 1 and 3.

Exercise VI. — Be able to repeat one of the expository or argumentative speeches which you have already prepared. Revise it with particular attention to variety of sentence form. Try to have at least one interrogative or imperative sentence. Experiment with balanced and periodic sentences and thus try to increase the effectiveness of your speech.

Exercise VII. — *Written Review.* Be able to write in class on any of the following topics:

1. How to Get Unity in the Choice of a Subject.
2. How to Get Unity in the Development of a Subject.
3. How to Plan for Coherence.
4. How to Plan for Emphasis.
5. The Best Method of Making a Plan for a Speech.
6. The Difference between the Plan for an Argument and the Plan for an Exposition.
7. Description of the Extempore Method.
8. Value of the Extempore Method.
9. The Correct Use of the Compound Sentence.
10. Variety of Sentence Forms as a Means of Force.

PART III—ARGUMENT AND PERSUASION

CHAPTER XI

THE GAME OF DEBATE

Introduction. — Now that we have learned how to deliver a speech and have studied the fundamental principles of composition, we shall be able to apply our knowledge and skill to argument and persuasion, two forms of speech which are more difficult in their character.

These two processes, if we may call them such, are very closely related. Persuasion may be defined as the art of moving men to action. In most instances the persuasive speaker must first convince men that a certain course of action is right and then lead them to feel disposed to act on their convictions. There is occasionally a very successful persuasive speech which appeals strongly to the feelings and very little to the reason; that is, it contains little argument. Such might be the speech of a clergyman in urging his congregation to go to the polls and vote for good government; for he would know that his hearers were already convinced as to what was right and needed only to be aroused to action. If, however, a man wishes to secure contributions to a cause, he must first convince his hearers that the cause is a worthy one. If he does not support his appeal to the feelings by sound reasoning, the impulse to act is likely to be of short duration. We see, then, that argument is very frequently the foundation of persuasion.

In this chapter we shall study (1) the relation of debate to argument, (2) the relation of debate to life, and (3) the value of debate as an exercise in public speaking.

I. RELATION OF DEBATE TO ARGUMENT

Nature of Debate. — Debate may be defined as a game in which two or more people discuss, according to certain rules, some question in real life on which there are differences of opinion. The question may be a simple one, such as, "Shall our senior class buy a two-dollar or a three-dollar pin?" Or it may be more complex, as, "Should our judges be appointed by the governor or elected by the people?" Honest differences of opinion occur in real life, either because Mr. A. recognizes one series of facts and Mr. B. recognizes another series of facts, or because, while both recognize the same series of facts, each draws a different conclusion therefrom. The winner of the game is the one who is best able to search out the facts supporting the opinion which he has been appointed to uphold and to use those facts in such a way as to convince his audience of their value.

Argumentative Practice. — The game of debate has been devised to give young people an opportunity to put into practice their knowledge of the rules of argument. It is true that one can learn to argue merely by a study of the rules and by the preparation of individual arguments, but he will develop his powers more rapidly if he will engage in the game of debate. Even though a student does not have the natural ability to become a skilled debater, he should study and understand the game. One who does not understand the game of football sees only a tumbling mass of boys, while one who does understand it

watches every move with keen interest. In the same way, one who does not understand the game of debate looks upon it as a bore, while one who does understand it gets from it both pleasure and profit. Because of the fact that the best way to learn to argue is to study the game of debate, all of the instruction in argument given in this text has been addressed to the debater.

II. RELATION OF DEBATE TO LIFE

Personal Problems. — The study of argumentation and the game of debate have a very close relation to life. We are debating with ourselves every day. We must decide, for instance, whether to go to the party or to stay at home and prepare for an examination. Again, the problem arises, "Shall I take a commercial course and be a business man or shall I study medicine?" In each case, we find that the question has two sides. In the solution of even these practical problems of life, an understanding of the rules that govern argument will prevent us from being led into error, either by our own false reasoning or by that of others.

Citizenship. — The practice of debate will tend to make one a valuable citizen in a democratic community. In the first place, it will furnish him with a wide range of information on problems which he will be required to discuss in later life. A student who is interested in debating throughout his high school course may, by means of debates prepared by himself or of those presented by his classmates, arrive at a more or less intelligent conclusion upon all the problems that come before the public mind.

In the second place, debate will assist in the formation of a judicial habit of mind, or the habit of weighing every

fact before drawing a conclusion. Among those who have debated under efficient guidance, one will seldom find the narrow-minded, prejudiced, or partisan. Neither will he find those who are easily influenced by false political leaders.

It is sometimes urged against debating that it tends to make a speaker insincere, in that he may be required to speak against his convictions. The fact is that the convictions which a young person may have on a debatable question are very likely to be mere prejudices which will vanish when the light of knowledge is turned on. We say "on a debatable question" because a question in which all the right is on one side and all the wrong is on the other is not debatable. We could not, for example, debate the proposition, "Resolved, That Mr. A. should throw his garbage into his neighbor's yard." The majority of debatable questions deal with reforms or policies. These have their advantages and disadvantages as compared with other reforms and policies; so that a thorough and conscientious debater may change his opinion several times before he has exhausted the study of his subject. Sometimes one newly discovered fact will outweigh all the plausible arguments on the opposing side. It is only when we know and have weighed all the facts on both sides that we may be said to have convictions which are worthy of the name. As Mr. G. J. Holyoake says, "Controversy is the pathway to truth and the final test of it."

The practice of debate will also help a student to become a leader among his fellows, because it not only increases his skill as a speaker, but also gives him the necessary foundation for persuasiveness. This claim is supported by the statement of the dean of a western law school.

He says of its graduates, "Those who were athletes enjoyed a brief period of glory while in college, but it is the debaters who are now helping to make the history of the community, state, and nation."

III. DEBATE AS AN EXERCISE IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

Self-consciousness. — As a valuable exercise in public speaking, debating is unsurpassed. It helps to counteract a tendency to self-consciousness, for the debater's interest in the contest causes him to forget himself.

Thoroughness. — No other exercise demands so much thoroughness of preparation; this is especially true of the public contest. Prof. W. T. Foster says in his *Argumentation and Debating*, "Often the hard work for a given debate provides the student's first standard for sounding the shallowness of his knowledge on other subjects." Students have sometimes been able to use the thorough work done on a high-school interscholastic debate as the basis for a prize essay or discussion at college.

Mental Training. — There can be no better training for the mind. The practice of debate, more than any other form of speech-making, compels a wise selection of material. If a speaker has no opponent, he may occupy ten minutes with almost any matter that refers to the subject; but if he debates, he must choose those arguments which will fill his time most profitably.

Furthermore, it sharpens the wits. The debater must not only think, but he must think quickly. This whole matter is admirably summed up by Edmund Burke, the great parliamentary debater, when he says, "He that wrestles with us strengthens our nerves and sharpens our skill. Our antagonist is our helper. This amiable con-

flict with difficulty obliges us to an intimate acquaintance with our subject and compels us to consider it in all its relations. It will not suffer us to be superficial."

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) that the game of debate has been devised to enable students to apply their knowledge of the rules of argument; (2) that the study of argumentation and debate has a very close relation to life; and (3) that as a valuable exercise in public speaking, debating is unsurpassed.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE GAME OF DEBATE

Introduction.

- I. Relation between Parts I, II, and III of the text.
- II. Relation of argument to persuasion.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Relation of debate to argument.
 - A. Nature of debate.
 1. Definition illustrated.
 2. Causes of different opinions.
 3. Qualifications of the winner.
 - B. Argumentative practice.
 1. Purpose of debate.
 2. Value as compared with the individual speech.
 3. Value of understanding the game.
- II. Relation of debate to life.
 - A. Personal problems.
 1. Instances.
 2. Prevention of error.
 - B. Citizenship.
 1. Information.
 2. Judicial habit of mind.
 - (a) Definition.
 - (b) Insincerity.

- II. B. 2. (b) (1) An undebatable question.
(2) Character of debatable questions.
(3) Meaning of "convictions" — Holyoake.
- 3. Leadership.
 - (a) Two reasons.
 - (b) Statement by the dean of a law school.

III. Debate as an exercise in public speaking.

A. Self-consciousness.

B. Thoroughness.

- 1. Statement by W. T. Foster.
- 2. Use in college.

C. Mental training.

- 1. Selection of material.
- 2. Alertness.
- 3. Statement of Burke.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

CHAPTER XII

THE QUESTION

Introduction. — The subject for discussion is usually called "the question." This is allowable for the reason that there is really a question underlying every debate. For example, we may debate the proposition, "Resolved, That — High School should adopt a system of student government." Involved in this proposition is the question, "Should — High School adopt a system of student government?" To this, the affirmative side answers "Yes" and the negative answers "No."

The subject for discussion is always phrased, however, in the form of a complete statement. In the first place, for the purposes of formal debating, the statement is more convenient than the question form. The first, or affirmative speaker, supports or affirms the proposition; the second, or negative speaker, denies it; and the remaining speakers follow alternately, according as they affirm or deny. In the second place, the statement form can be made more clear and explicit than a topic. It would be impossible to debate successfully the topic, "Student Government"; for it does not state whether the dispute concerns college, high-school, or grammar-school students, or whether it concerns all schools or one particular school.

In this chapter we shall learn: (1) that in phrasing a question for debate, one should seek to throw the burden of proof upon the affirmative, avoiding, if possible, a

negative statement; and (2) that he should aim to make the question evenly balanced; that is, he should try to give to each side an equal chance.

I. BURDEN OF PROOF

Supported by Affirmative. — The question should be so worded as to place the burden of proof upon the affirmative. In questions of present-day interest, this can be done by forcing the affirmative to advocate a change or, in general, to uphold what is supposed to be the unpopular side. This arrangement furnishes an incentive to earnest work on the part of the affirmative, since it is assumed that the general public is in favor of things as they exist, else they would already have been changed. The affirmative has the work of attacking the old and of convincing the public of the value of the new. To make a speech in defense of present conditions before they have been attacked would be a very tame affair. The first affirmative would find it very difficult, for example, to introduce in an interesting way the proposition, "Resolved, That we should make no change in our method of school government."

Shifting the Burden. — If the first affirmative has done his work well, he is said to have shifted the burden of proof to the negative; that is, he has convinced the public that a change is necessary. The negative then has the exhilarating task of trying to shift the burden back again. He can do this in one of two ways: he may attack the new plan and defend present conditions, or, as is more commonly the case, he may admit the evil of present conditions and present what he considers a better remedy. If each speaker does his duty, the burden of proof continues to

be shifted alternately from one side to the other. The winners of the debate, from the standpoint of argument, are those who, in the minds of the judges, have finally shifted the burden to the other side. Since the burden of proof rests in the beginning upon the affirmative, the main speeches are so arranged as to give the affirmative the first chance to shift the burden to the negative. For the same reason, the affirmative is given an opportunity to close the debate. This is accomplished by reversing the order in which the speakers appear for refutation; that is, the refutation speeches are so arranged that negative speakers lead and affirmative speakers follow.

Objection to Negative Statement. — In phrasing a question so that the burden of proof will fall upon the affirmative, it is sometimes difficult to avoid a negative statement. Let us consider the question, "Resolved, That the Garrison bill providing for a larger army should *not* be supported." This statement has its merit and its demerit. It is good in that it places the burden of proof upon the affirmative, for it was phrased at a time when public opinion was strongly in favor of increased preparedness. In other words, it forced the affirmative to advocate a peace policy when there seemed to be particular need of defense. The negative phrasing of the question, however, is likely to be a source of confusion to both speakers and audience. It is necessary constantly to reverse one's mental machinery; for the affirmative side takes a negative attitude toward the topic of discussion, while the negative side takes a positive attitude. Possibly a better statement of the question would be, "Resolved, That the Garrison bill providing for a larger army should be condemned." It must be admitted that, even with this

statement of the question, the negative idea is present, — this is made necessary by the situation, — but the affirmative phrasing does in a measure lessen the difficulty.

II. BALANCE

A good question for debate is evenly balanced; that is, it is so worded that the burden of proof does not rest too heavily upon the affirmative. The change that is advocated should not be too extreme or radical. Let us take as an example the question of our jury system. It is freely admitted that there are many evils in our jury system. For this reason the following question has frequently been debated: "Resolved, That the jury system should be abolished." This radical statement of the problem is, however, unfair to the affirmative. The change is too sweeping. It would do violence to our most cherished guarantee of freedom. A better debate would result from the consideration of some reform within the jury system: as, "Resolved, That nine out of twelve men should be able to render a verdict in all criminal cases." This proposition, although it provides for a much less radical change, places a sufficiently heavy burden on the affirmative, for we are all inclined to feel that a man should not suffer the extreme, or death, penalty unless all who hear the evidence concur in the verdict. No debatable question is absolutely balanced. We can only seek to approximate a true balance.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned that, in phrasing a question for debate, we should seek (1) to place the burden of proof upon the affirmative and (2) to give to each side, as nearly as possible, an equal opportunity.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE QUESTION

Introduction.

- I. Reason for calling the subject a question.
- II. Why phrased as a statement.
 - A. As compared with a question.
 - B. As compared with a topic.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Burden of proof.
 - A. Supported by affirmative.
 1. How accomplished.
 2. Value.
 - B. Shifting the burden.
 1. Two methods of the negative.
 2. Winners.
 3. Order of speeches.
 - C. Objection to negative statement.
 1. Example.
 - (a) Its merit and demerit.
 2. Partial remedy.
- II. Balance.
 - A. Example of an extreme statement.
 - B. Example of a less extreme statement.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

CHAPTER XIII

HOW TO USE A LIBRARY

Introduction. — If one is asked to make a speech of greater length than three or four minutes, whether it be a debate or some other form of public address, it will probably be necessary for him to search for material outside of his own mind. It is quite common on such occasions for young students to seek help from their older friends. This is profitable and right, provided that the student has first done some extensive reading on the subject. Public spirited men usually count it a pleasure to assist a bright, energetic student if he knows exactly on what phases of the subject the student desires information. The latter should not, however, pester his elders for "points" until after he has made use of the available written material.

The most successful speakers give much time to research work. The following quotation from Alexander Hamilton shows how much drudgery and patient effort lie back of the public utterances of great men: "Men give me credit for some genius. All the genius I have lies in this: when I have a subject in hand, I study it profoundly. Day and night it is before me. I explore it in all its bearings. My mind becomes pervaded with it. Then the effort which I make is what the people are pleased to call the fruit of genius. It is the fruit of labor and thought." The material to be studied is often very

extensive, especially upon debatable questions. There are subjects discussed on high-school platforms, the literature of which might well occupy a student for an entire year. Because of this, it is usually best to divide one's time into two parts, giving the first half to research work and the second half to the arrangement and phrasing of one's ideas.

Since the time is always limited and since the material is often, seemingly, without limit, the speaker must learn those methods of research which will secure the best results with the greatest economy of effort. We shall learn, therefore, in this chapter: (1) how to find material in a library, (2) how to select that which is most useful, and (3) how to take notes in the best way.

I. HOW TO FIND REFERENCES

References are those books, magazines, or pamphlets which deal with the subject to be investigated.

General Idea. — The speaker should try first to get a general idea of his subject. This is quite as necessary as it is for the artist to sketch in the general outline of his picture before he fills in the details. In some instances one may be able to find this general idea in his own mind. Webster, when asked how he prepared himself on a subject, said, "I first examine my own mind searchingly, to find out what I already know about the subject, and then I read to learn what I don't know about it."

In other cases the speaker may consult general reference works which handle the whole subject in a brief way. If the subject is historical, literary, or scientific, he may consult the encyclopedia or textbooks. If the subject is debatable, he may use, in addition, books of briefs. (See

Appendix XII, No. VII, General References on Debatable Subjects.)

The debater should be warned against using "brief books" in any other way than to get a general view of the subject. He should not copy and use the arrangement of ideas; for, in the first place, the arrangement is seldom ideal and, in the second place, an original plan helps to give individuality and force to a speech. Again, the student should never use a book of briefs as authority for a statement.

Special References. — There are several kinds of references which give the detailed facts bearing on a subject and which we may call special references.

(1) **Magazine Articles.** — These can be found by consulting the *Reader's Guide*, which is a continuation of *Poole's Index* from the year 1900. The references for each month are issued in pamphlet form. At the end of the quarter, the references for the year up to that time are issued in pamphlet form. At the end of each year and again at the end of every five years they are issued in bound form.

The student should look up magazine references in some regular order. He will then know whether or not he has found all of the best articles. It is usually well to begin with the recent ones and work backward, for the latest articles give more up-to-date and therefore more valuable information. The speaker should not be deterred from this course by the fact that it is often difficult to secure late copies. New magazines are usually sent to the bindery in January and in July, and sometimes are not returned for two or three months. If one is looking for material about the life and works of a great character,

it is well to find the date of his death and to look for magazine references in the *Reader's Guide* for that year.

The thoroughness with which the student can search for and copy references will, of course, depend upon the amount of time which is allotted to the work. It is always well to look for references under several different topics connected with the subject: for example, material on the "Recall of Judges" may be found under Judiciary, Courts, Laws, Recall of Decisions, etc. If one has but a short time for preparation, he should copy only those references whose titles indicate that they bear directly on the subject. If, on the other hand, one is gathering material for a public debate and has from four to six weeks to study the subject, he should copy all references. He may sometimes find, in this way, embedded in a seemingly irrelevant article, a fact or idea that will suggest an original line of argument.

(2) **Books.** — Most of these can be found by consulting the card catalogue. There will be found, also, on the reference shelves, books which give valuable statistics, such as, Census Reports, *Statesman's Year Book*, *World Almanac*, *Who's Who*, etc. All of the larger libraries keep files of the *Congressional Record*. It requires several volumes to record the proceedings of each session of Congress. These are all given the same volume number, but are designated Part I, Part II, etc. If the student wishes to find a Congressional debate on his subject, he should first look in the index, which will be found in the last part of each volume, or of the set for each session. The index will state the numbers of the Senate or House Bills which deal with the subject. He should then turn to the list of House Bills or of Senate Bills, which are

arranged according to number, to find the pages upon which the debate is recorded.

(3) **Pamphlets.** — The United States government issues in pamphlet form a great deal of material upon debatable subjects. This, if it is not already in the library, can be obtained without charge through the Congressman from one's district. Organizations which have been formed for the purpose of urging or opposing some reform usually publish literature which they are glad to distribute. Material of this kind is very abundant on such subjects as prohibition, woman suffrage, initiative and referendum, socialism, ship subsidy, naval increase, labor, etc. The student can usually secure the addresses of the publishing houses of these organizations through some one in his own town who is interested in the subject.

How to Copy References. — Those who have worked much in libraries have discovered that it saves time to be systematic in the copying of references. It is well to copy each reference on a separate card or slip of paper. These slips will be much more convenient than a notebook list of references if one is working in a large library, for the librarian can place the slip in each volume as he secures it. This plan permits the student to proceed with his reading while the librarian is searching for other volumes. The separate slips are especially useful to debaters. When a student has read a reference, he may label it Affirmative, Negative, or General, star it if it is particularly good, and pass it on to his colleagues.

One should copy practically all of the items given either in the *Reader's Guide* or in the card catalogue. These consist of the name of the author, title of the article, *name* of the magazine, volume, page numbers, and date.

Nearly all of these items are essential for finding purposes. The exact date is necessary in the case of all recent and therefore unbound magazines and of such magazines as begin each issue with page one. In addition, some of them help to guide the student as to the order in which he should read, and are especially necessary if one wishes to send to a state library for material. The name of the author will enable the student to read, early in his study, those authors which he finds to be best informed. The title often indicates whether or not the article bears directly upon the subject, and the date will show whether the material is likely to have become obsolete by the movement of events.

II. HOW TO SELECT MATERIAL

The student must next learn to select from a large mass of material that which will be most useful to him. It has been suggested in the preceding paragraph that the student read his best material first, using as a guide in this matter the name of the author, the title, and the date.

Skimming. — Let us now consider the manner of reading a given magazine or book. The student should learn to skim thoughtfully and systematically. Sir Francis Bacon says in his quaint way, "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts, others to be read but not curiously, and some few to be read wholly and with diligence and attention." What Bacon says of books as a whole is true also of parts of books and of articles. An unpracticed reader will often plod along through an article in painstaking fashion,

taking copious notes. Several hours may thus be consumed on some abstruse, unintelligible, and perhaps irrelevant material, while clear, spicy reading matter must be left untouched for lack of time.

In order to determine whether or not an article is valuable, the student should read the introduction, the conclusion, and the first and last sentence of each paragraph. In order to determine whether or not a book is valuable, the student should read the conclusion and consult the table of contents and index. When he has found useful material, he should read it carefully and thoughtfully. "The careful reader is not necessarily the slow reader, but he who knows when to slacken his pace and read slowly."¹

III. HOW TO TAKE NOTES

A speaker must not only learn how to read, but he must study the art of note-taking. Those who shirk this duty are likely, in their speeches, to deal in generalities because they are at a loss for facts to support their assertions.

Substance of the Thought. — Good notes record the substance of the thought and not the exact words of the author. To repeat the words of an author without giving him due credit is literary theft, for, while an author cannot copyright an idea, he does copyright the mode of its expression. This does not mean that it is criminal to notice and incorporate in one's own statements some particularly apt phrase, for it is only by thoughtful attention to these matters that the student can improve his own style of expression. One's speech should not, however, be a mosaic made up of sentences and phrases culled from the writings of others.

¹ Laycock and Spofford, *Manual of Argumentation*, pp. 34-35.

Again, if the exact words of others are copied and repeated, the speech will lack the personal stamp which is necessary to a forceful style. Sentences which are readable and pleasing when seen on the printed page seem stilted and bookish when they fall from the lips of a high-school boy or girl. If the student wishes to make an effective speech, he should assimilate the ideas — make them a part of himself. Dr. R. M. Alden has said on this point, “The *Congressional Record* and the *North American Review* may reappear in debate in a new form, just as last week’s meat and vegetables reappear this week in bone and blood and muscle.”

Above all, the habit of repeating the words of others prevents a student from developing originality. As Mr. Esenwein says, “The young speaker who dares to be himself, casting artificiality to the winds, will begin by making less brilliant speeches than his companions who copy and crib, but his power and invention will increase and he will end far in advance of his less original rivals.”

Intelligible although Condensed. — Well-taken notes have both of these qualities. The members of a debating team should be able to read and understand each other’s notes. If taken in the correct form, they may be filed and will be usable many years after they are written. In order that notes may be valuable in this way, both to oneself and to others, it is necessary (1) that the penmanship be legible, (2) that only such abbreviations be used as are generally understood, and (3) that each idea be expressed in a brief but complete sentence.

It is quite possible to write one’s notes in complete sentences and yet condense them. The degree of condensation depends upon the value of the material. One

brief sentence may give the substance of a long sentence, of a paragraph, or of a whole article. Sometimes only the whereabouts of a fact, story, or illustration need be noted. This should be done if the speaker is uncertain as to whether he will be able to use the material. In making note of an exact quotation, it is desirable to omit all unnecessary portions, indicating such omissions by dotted lines. The student should take care, however, in making such excerpts, not to misrepresent the thought of the author.

Written Form. — Certain matters of form, if carefully observed, will add greatly to the usefulness of one's notes. The student should take his notes on small slips of paper, one point to the page, with a keyword indicating the main idea of the note in the upper left corner. This system will help him greatly in the arrangement of his speech material. He can easily shift his slips so as to bring together all notes on one phase of the subject. It will also enable him, if a debater, to sort out readily on the platform any notes which are likely to be useful to him in refutation.

At the foot of each note should be placed the complete reference consisting of the author, magazine, volume, exact page, and date. This should be done for several reasons. In the first place, the student may wish to re-read the article, if it should prove later to be of greater value than he had at first thought, or if some one else should challenge the accuracy of his statements. In the second place, the name of the author and the date are often important factors in determining the value of one statement as compared with opposing statements.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned (1) how to find material in a library, (2) how to select the best

and read it with the least possible waste of time, and (3) how to take notes so that they will be of the greatest service.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

HOW TO USE A LIBRARY

Introduction.

- I. When to consult one's elders.
- II. Time necessary for research work.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. How to find references — definition.
 - A. General idea.
 1. Compared to the artist.
 2. His own mind.
 3. General references.
 - (a) Encyclopedias, etc.
 - (b) Books of briefs.
 - (1) Warning against two uses of.
 - B. Special references.
 1. Magazine articles.
 - (a) *Reader's Guide* — how issued.
 - (b) Regular order.
 - (1) Recent first.
 - (2) Bindery.
 - (3) Great character.
 - (c) Thoroughness.
 - (1) Topics.
 - (2) Short time.
 - (3) Long time.
 2. Books.
 - (a) Catalogue.
 - (b) Reference works.
 - (c) *Congressional Record*.
 3. Pamphlets.
 - (a) Government.
 - (b) Organizations.

- I. C. How to copy references.
 - 1. Use of slips in a library.
 - 2. Use by debaters.
 - 3. Items and reasons for copying them.
- II. How to select material.
 - A. Skimming.
 - 1. Bacon.
 - 2. Fault of unpracticed readers.
 - 3. How to determine the value of
 - (a) An article.
 - (b) A book.
- III. How to take notes.
 - A. Substance of the thought.
 - 1. Literary theft.
 - 2. Personal stamp — Alden.
 - 3. Development — Esenwein.
 - B. Intelligible although condensed.
 - 1. Two reasons.
 - 2. Three requisites.
 - 3. Possibility of condensation.
 - (a) Degree.
 - (b) Whereabouts.
 - (c) Exact quotations.
 - C. Written form.
 - 1. Method described.
 - 2. Usefulness of system.
 - (a) In arrangement.
 - (b) In refutation.
 - 3. Complete reference.
 - (a) Reasons.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Study the text as far as Division II, and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Using the *Reader's Guide* for suggestion, choose some topic upon which you can find at least three magazine articles. Copy those references which, from their titles and authors, appear to be the best. Assure yourself that they can be found in the library. Use the *Guides* of several years if necessary.

Exercise III. — Complete the reading of the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise IV. — Begin your reading and note-taking. Let each note resemble the following:

NAVAL WASTE

American navy during 15 years has cost 45% more than Kaiser's. Yet his is more powerful.

Geo. V. L. Meyer, former Sec'y of Navy.

N. Am. Rev. 201: 248, F, '15.

Exercise V. — Using the material which you have gathered in your reading, arrange a word outline for a speech of not less than three and not more than four minutes. Try to follow instructions given in Chapter VII with regard to unity, coherence, and emphasis in arrangement. Do not fail: (1) to write a salutation; (2) to write a theme sentence; and (3) to write, if your speech is to be an argument, subordinate sentences for each reason or proof.

Exercise VI. — Be able to deliver the speech arranged in Ex. V. Notes as well as word outline should be ready to hand in.

Exercise VII. — *Written Review.* Be able to write in class on any of the following topics:

1. Relation Between Argument and Persuasion.
2. The Game of Debate.
3. Relation of Debate to Life.
4. Value of Debate as an Exercise in Public Speaking.
5. The Burden of Proof.
6. A Balanced Question.
7. How to Get a General Idea of a Subject.
8. How to Find Special References, as Magazines, Books, and Pamphlets.
9. Selection of Material.
10. Characteristics of Good Notes.
11. Convenience of Form.

CHAPTER XIV

ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTION

Introduction. — Analysis, according to the dictionary, is the study of a thing in its separate parts and in their relation to each other. A chemist, for instance, analyzes a drop of water. He finds that it is composed of hydrogen and oxygen in the proportion of two to one. The debater, in like manner, analyzes a question for discussion. In so doing, he finds that certain facts and arguments have a bearing on the question and that others do not. He finds also that some facts and arguments have a more important bearing than others.

The process of analysis in debate has been divided, for the convenience of discussion, into two steps. The first step is to find out what the question means. The second step is to find the main issue, or main difference of opinion. The two steps are not, however, separate and distinct, the one being completed before the next is begun. A change in the definition may make necessary a change in the main issue and *vice versa*. As will be seen more clearly later on, the process of analysis must be continuous. The successful debater begins to analyze the question when it is first presented to him and he does not cease the process until the public discussion has been completed.

In this chapter we shall learn (1) how to find the definition of the question, (2) how to find the main issue, and (3) the value of careful analysis.

I. THE DEFINITION

Dictionary. — It is sometimes necessary to look up certain words in the dictionary. This is, however, only a beginning. The definition of a debatable question is usually a much larger matter than the definition of the words contained in the statement of the question.

Circumstances. — The real definition of the question is to be found in the circumstances out of which the question has arisen. As we learned in a previous chapter, the affirmative in most debatable questions is required to advocate some change. Let us consider again the proposition, "Resolved, That — High School should adopt a system of student government." Evidently, the term which needs definition in this question is "a system of student government." Now there have been, perhaps, as many systems of student government as there have been experiments in this line. It is the privilege of the affirmative to advocate the very best possible plan, while it is the duty of the negative to discover the flaws in this best plan. In order to determine which is the best plan, the debater must study the history of the question; that is, he must compare all the plans which have been tried or suggested and select the best features of each.

If a debater finds his definition in this way, in the history of the question, it will not be far-fetched, or made to favor his own side unreasonably. This is an important point, since an effort to define a question unreasonably is more likely to injure than to help a debater. (See Appendix V(a) for a brief definition of student government.)

An attempt to answer the following questions will help

a debater to find this best and at the same time reasonable plan: (1) What circumstances seem to make a change necessary? (2) Just what, in detail, is the change which is generally advocated? (3) Just how, in detail, would this change work out in practice?

Prepared by Both Sides. — The negative as well as the affirmative speakers should prepare a definition, for they cannot attack a plan intelligently until they know what it is. Again, a question is sometimes so worded that its meaning is not clear. In such a case, both sides should come to a previous agreement as to the definition, or should agree to re-word the question; for a quibble on the platform about the meaning of the question is very unpleasant for the audience.

II. THE MAIN ISSUE

Clash of Opinion. — The first step toward finding the main issue, or main difference of opinion, is the preparation of a clash of opinion. This consists of a list of points on both sides of the question and should be in process of construction all the time that the debater is thinking and reading about his question. These points should be arranged on a large sheet of paper in such a way that the affirmative points, very briefly phrased, shall appear in the left-hand column, each with its negative answer opposite, in the right-hand column. The clash may consist of from five to twenty-five differences of opinion, the number depending upon the thoroughness with which the debater has studied his subject.

The student should be careful to place no point in either the affirmative or negative list which can be admitted by *the other* side, for such a point will be of slight value.

If, for example, the affirmative were advocating a national prohibition law, the negative might admit the evil effects of liquor and yet favor another method of abolition. If the negative should take this position and should advocate gradual abolition by means of state laws, all discussion by the affirmative of the evils of intemperance would be a waste of time.

Again, it is well for the debater, in preparing a clash, to distinguish between points and proofs, placing them in separate columns, for a point which lacks proof will have very little weight in the final discussion.

Statement of the Issue. — When the clash of opinion is completed, the student should try to decide which is the strongest point on each side. This will be the one which is most difficult for the other side to answer. He should then write a question in which he asks which has more weight, the strongest point on the affirmative or the strongest point on the negative. This question will be the statement of the main issue. Let us again seek an illustration in the question on student government. The claim on the affirmative which seems most difficult to refute is that, even if the experiment is not altogether a success in itself, it will give to young people a practical training in citizenship. On the other hand, the strongest negative point seems to be that there is a likelihood of indifference and failure and consequently of the demoralizing influence of bad government. The main issue, therefore, is, "Will the possible benefit from practical training in citizenship outweigh the danger of the demoralizing influence of bad government?" (See Appendix V, a.) The question, "Do the advantages of student government outweigh its disadvantages?" would not be a good state-

ment of the main issue, since it does not show that the debater has analyzed his question and found the strongest point on each side.

A question occasionally arises in which it seems almost impossible to reduce the subject matter of discussion to one main issue. If one can succeed in his attempt, however, he will be well rewarded for the effort expended, for it will help to give to his work unity and definiteness of aim. If the debater is content to discuss several issues, he may prove his case from one standpoint and fail to prove it from the other standpoints. If, however, he can reduce the matter to one main issue and prove that, he has won his case, for he has practically shown that the strongest point on one side is stronger than the strongest point on the other side. The main issue, then, expresses what the affirmative must prove or what the negative must disprove in order to win his case.

III. VALUE OF ANALYSIS

The constant mental sifting and weighing process, called analysis, which goes on while one is defining his question and finding the main issue, is of inestimable value to the debater.

Saves Time. — In the first place, it is a great “time-saver,” for it prevents him from taking elaborate notes on phases of the subject which are relatively unimportant. This is true even though he may be unable to arrive at a satisfactory analysis until near the close of his preparation.

Makes Him a Stronger Match for Opponent. — The value of studying both sides of the question is not generally appreciated by young debaters. A successful lawyer once said that if he should be granted but two

hours to prepare for a case in court, he would begin by studying his opponent's case. This part of the preparation has been compared to the work of a commander before a battle. Prof. G. P. Baker says, "The skillful forensic worker, like a great general, will wish to know, not only where all the weak places as well as the strong in his own lines are, but, as far as possible, the weak and strong places in the enemy's lines." Another parallel may be found in football. A team must know not only its own plays but also those of its opponents, for plays must be anticipated in order to be blocked.

The finding and presenting of the main issue may also be compared to the drawing of the lines on a tennis court, beyond which no contestant may play for gain. If he sends a ball outside the court, his play merely adds to the points of his opponent. In like manner a debater may seek to make his case appear strong by appeals to sentiment or by flights of rhetoric, but if his opponent has clearly and truly outlined the main issue, the false arguments will fall on the audience like the tennis ball in the outer court, only to add to the score of his opponent.

Unifies Aim. — Clear analysis enables a debater to know his own main purpose. As O'Connell says, in his Irish way, "If you aim at nothin', you will be sure to hit it." To use another figure, the debater who analyzes well knows which slant the nail must take and can "hit it on the head" with force.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) that the debater should formulate a reasonable definition by studying the history of the question; (2) that, in order to arrive at the main issue, he should make a clash of opinion, choose the strongest point on each side, and ex-

press these two points in the form of a question; (3) that this sifting and weighing process of the mind is of great value to the debater.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTION

Introduction.

- I. Definition.
 - A. Chemist.
 - B. Debater.
- II. Two steps.
 - A. Relation to each other.
 - B. Continuous process.

III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. The definition.
 - A. Dictionary.
 - B. Circumstances.
 - 1. The best plan.
 - 2. Reasonable plan.
 - 3. Three questions.
 - C. Preparation by both sides.
 - 1. Necessity.
 - 2. Previous agreement.
- II. The main issue.
 - A. Clash of opinion.
 - 1. Description of.
 - 2. Admitted points.
 - 3. Proof.
 - B. Statement of the issue.
 - 1. How framed.
 - (a) Illustration.
 - (b) Incorrect example.
 - 2. Value of one issue as compared with several.
- III. Value of analysis.
 - A. Saving of time — notes.

III. B. Makes him strong match for opponent.

1. Lawyer.
2. Parallel case to
 - (a) Commander.
 - (b) Football.
3. Tennis court.

C. Unifies aim.

1. O'Connell.
2. Nail.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter as far as Division III and be able to recite from the topical outline. Read carefully in connection with this chapter the specimen definition and clash of opinion on "Student Government." (Appendix V (a)).

Exercise II. — A question from Appendix VI may be chosen for class study. Each student should read one or more general references on the class subject and prepare a tentative definition, clash of opinion, and main issue.

Exercise III. — Finish the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline. Copy references on the class question.

READING LESSON VII

1. From a speech by Macaulay in favor of the Reform Bill of 1832:

"What facts does my honorable friend produce in support of his opinion? One fact only, and that a fact which has absolutely nothing to do with the question. The effect of this reform, he tells us, would be to make the House of Commons more powerful. It was all-powerful once before, in the beginning of 1649. Then it cut off the head of the king, and abolished the House of Peers. Therefore, if it again has the supreme power, it will act in the same manner. Now, sir, it was not the House of Commons that cut off the head of Charles the First; nor was the House of Commons then all-powerful. It had been greatly reduced in numbers by successive expulsions. It was under the absolute dominion of the army. A majority of the House was willing to take the terms offered by the king. The soldiers turned out the majority; and the minority, not a sixth part of the whole House, passed those votes of which my honorable friend speaks, — votes of which the middle classes disapproved then, and of which they disapprove still."

2. From Macaulay:

"Many politicians of our time are in the habit of laying it down as a self-evident proposition, that no people ought to be free till they are fit to use their freedom. The maxim is worthy of the fool in the old story, who resolved not to go into the water until he had learned to swim. If men are to wait for liberty until they become wise and good in slavery, they may indeed wait forever."

3. From a discussion of "Property in Slaves," by William Ellery Channing:

"But this property, we are told, is not to be questioned on account of its long duration. 'Two hundred years of legislation have sanctioned and *sanctified* negro slaves as property.' Nothing but respect for the speaker could repress criticism on this unhappy phraseology. We will trust it escaped him without thought. But to confine ourselves to argument from duration; how obvious the reply! Is injustice changed into justice by the practice of ages? Is my victim *made a righteous prey* because I have bowed him to the earth till

he cannot rise? For more than two hundred years heretics were burned, and not by mobs, not by lynch law, but by the decrees of councils, at the instigation of theologians, and with the sanction of the laws and religions of nations; and was this a reason for keeping up the fires, that they had burned two hundred years? In the Eastern world, successive despots, not for two hundred years, but for twice two thousand, have claimed the right of life and death over millions, and, with no law but their own will, have beheaded, bowstrung, starved, tortured unhappy men without number who have incurred their wrath; and does the lapse of so many centuries sanctify murder and ferocious power?"

4. Patrick Henry in the Virginia House of Representatives:

"Caesar had his Brutus, Charles I his Cromwell [cries of 'Treason, Treason'], and let George III profit by their example."

5. From Lincoln's Cooper Union Speech:

"Some of you delight to flaunt in our faces the warning against sectional parties given by Washington in his *Farewell Address*. Less than eight years before Washington gave that warning he had, as President of the United States, approved and signed an act of Congress enforcing the prohibition of slavery in the Northwestern Territory, which act embodied the policy of the government, upon that subject, up to and at the very moment he penned that warning; and about one year after he penned it, he wrote Lafayette that he considered that prohibition a wise measure, expressing in the same connection his hope that we should at some time have a confederacy of free states.

"Bearing this in mind and seeing that sectionalism has since arisen upon this same subject, is that warning a weapon in your hands against us or in our hands against you? Could Washington himself speak, would he cast the blame of that sectionalism upon us who sustain his policy, or upon you who repudiate it? We respect that warning of Washington and we commend it to you, together with his example pointing to the right application of it."

6. Webster in the White Murder Trial:

"The prisoner's counsel catch at supposed flaws of evidence, or bad character of witnesses, without meeting the case. If the fact is

out, why not meet it? Do they mean to deny that Captain White is dead? One would almost have supposed even that, from some remarks that have been made. Do they mean to deny the conspiracy? Or, admitting a conspiracy, do they mean to deny only that Frank Knapp, the prisoner at the bar, was abetting in the murder, being present, and so deny that he was a principal? If the conspiracy is proved, it bears closely upon every subsequent subject of inquiry. Why do they not come to the fact? Here the defense is wholly indistinct. The counsel neither take the ground nor abandon it. *They neither fly nor light. They hover.* But they must come to a closer mode of contest. They must meet the facts and either deny or admit them."

7. Speech in the House of Representatives, February 1, 1894, by Thomas B. Reed:

"Mr. Pinchot compared our present consumption of wood to the case of a man in an open boat at sea, cut adrift from some shipwreck and with but a few days' supply of water on board. He drinks all the water the first day, simply because he is thirsty, though he knows that the water will not last long. The American people know that their wood supply will last but a few decades. Yet they shut their eyes to the facts."

CHAPTER XV

PROOF AND ITS TESTS

Introduction. — Students sometimes have the mistaken idea that debate consists of affirmations on one side and denials on the other. This attitude was humorously illustrated by a cartoon sketched by a student to advertise a public debate. Two disreputable looking characters were depicted, each shaking his fist in the face of the other. One was saying, "'Tis," and the other, "'Tain't." When the debaters themselves take this attitude, the contest descends from the level of a debate to that of a dispute.

We who have studied this text, however, have already learned something of the importance of proof. We have learned that the burden of proof rests at the beginning of the debate upon the affirmative; that he must not only state that his plan is a good one, but must also prove it. We have found that, if the affirmative proves his plan to be a good one, the burden of proof is thereby shifted to the negative, and that he, in turn, must not only deny his opponent's claim but also disprove it. It is quite evident from these facts that the one who finally fails to shift back the burden of proof loses the debate.

When we look further into the nature of proof, we find that it is made up of two elements: (1) facts and (2) reasoning about facts. In attempting to refute the proof of an opponent, we may either question the facts or admit

the facts and question the reasoning about the facts. The latter method was a favorite with Lincoln. If a student would be a successful debater he must question, or test, his own facts and reasonings as well as those of his opponent.

In this chapter we shall learn: (1) how to test facts (to find whether or not they are true), (2) how to test reasoning (to find whether or not it is sound), and (3) how to test statements which are unsupported either by fact or by reason.

I. HOW TO TEST FACTS

Knowledge. — We should first ask, "Is the authority for the fact in a position to have an exact knowledge of the subject?" Let us suppose, for example, that the discussion concerns the ability of the Filipinos for self-government. The testimony of a traveler who had passed but a few days in the Philippine Islands would be less reliable than that of a missionary who had resided there for a dozen years.

Prejudice. — We should next ask, "Is the authority for the fact unprejudiced?" To illustrate: If Mr. A., a Congressman and the author of a bill providing for Philippine independence, should go to the Islands and return with further evidence of the ability of the Filipinos for self-government, it might be suspected that he had found ability because he was looking for it; that his testimony was colored by his preconceived notions. If, on the other hand, he should on his return withdraw his support from the measure, saying that he had found evidence of their inability, his testimony would be particularly valuable, since it would be in direct opposition to

his former ideas and would indicate absolute independence of judgment.

Research. — The debater, in order to test authorities in this way, must trace back his facts from the newspaper to the reliable magazine and from the magazine to the still more reliable government report. He must also consult *Who's Who* for the purpose of determining the standing of his authority. It may be said here that researches of this nature are not necessary in the case of statements which would generally be accepted as true, but only for those proofs which are essential to the main issue and which might be disputed by one's opponent. It is better in the final debate to cite a few authorities and establish their trustworthiness than it is to quote many opinions, for an authority is of no value unless the audience recognizes him as such.

II. HOW TO TEST ARGUMENTS

Method in General. — We may test arguments by trying to see whether the proof and the statement proved can be sensibly joined by the word *because*. When we do this, we find that our minds are so constructed that they will tell us whether or not the reasoning is sound. For example, it is sensible to say, "Mary's father should allow her to go to the party, because it will not interfere with her lessons." On the contrary, it is not sensible to say, "Mary's father should allow her to go to the party because they are going to decorate with the society colors."

General Conclusions. — We shall first consider how to test general conclusions, or generalizations, as they are called. Let us suppose that a clubwoman says, "High-school boys do nothing but smoke and play pool out of

school hours." If her reasoning were stated in full, it would read: "High-school boys do nothing but smoke and play pool out of school hours, because I know two or three high-school boys who do nothing else." When her reasoning is analyzed in this way, it is easily seen that she has based her general conclusion on an insufficient number of special instances. Her generalization can be disproved by the following facts: (1) many boys excel in athletics; (2) others make high scholarship records; and (3) still others earn their own way through school.

Special Conclusions: Simple Method. — We shall next consider how to test special conclusions. Every special conclusion is based either directly or indirectly upon some general conclusion. Therefore, if we can find the general conclusion and can disprove that, we shall have disproved the special conclusion which is based upon it. There are three forms of reasoning which are simple in their nature and which lead to special conclusions.

(1) **From a Known Fact to an Unknown Effect.** — The first form reasons from a known fact forward to an unknown effect. A debater may say, for instance, "Student government would cause the pupils to feel a sense of responsibility." His reasoning stated in full would read: "Student government would cause the students to feel a sense of responsibility, because *all who have responsibility placed upon them rise to meet it.*" This general statement, however, can be disproved, for some students will take advantage of their student officers as they do of their teachers, and some student officers in order to become popular will favor their friends.

(2) **From a Known Fact Back to its Unknown Cause.** — *The second form reasons from a known fact backward*

to its unknown cause. A Republican campaign orator, for example, may say, "The prosperity of the year — was caused by the high tariff." His reasoning stated in full would read, "The prosperity was caused by the high tariff, because *what follows is caused by what precedes.*" This general statement, however, could be disproved by the Democratic orator who might show that high tariff had not always been followed by prosperity, or that the prosperity of the year — had been caused by particularly good crops, or that prosperity had existed before the high tariff law was passed.

Resemblance. — The third form of reasoning argues from resemblance. There are two ways in which the debater may use this form. He may cite a parallel case or he may draw an analogy. If a debater should say, "Student government will fail in Y High School because it failed in X High School," he would claim to cite a case which is parallel. If stated in full his reasoning would read, "The failure of student government in X High School proves that it will fail in Y High School, because *whatever occurs once will occur, again under similar circumstances.*" Now it may not be possible to disprove this general statement, but it may be possible to prove that the cases are not similar, or parallel. It may be shown, for example, that the system of government in X High School differs in some essential particular from the system proposed for Y High School.

Let us next study an example of analogy. A high-school debater once said, "To adopt the English cabinet system in America would be like trying to transplant a full-grown tree; the result would be disastrous." His reasoning if stated in full would read: "The adoption

of the English cabinet system in America would be disastrous, because if *two things resemble each other in one respect, they are likely to resemble each other in another respect*. The cabinet system, like a tree, was planted and developed in one place. It could not, therefore, be made to grow in another place." His opponent answered with another analogy based upon the same generalization. He said, "We do not propose to transplant the English system to America; we propose merely to choose those features of the English system which are most valuable and to engraft them upon the American system. Everyone knows that a graft produces better fruit than the parent tree." This by-play serves to show us that, by analogy, each debater could illustrate his point of view, but that neither of them could prove his contention. In other words, for the purpose of illustration analogy is very valuable; for the purpose of proof it is worthless.

Special Conclusions: Complicated Methods. — There are three methods of disproving special conclusions which are more complicated than those just considered.

The first method is called *reducing to an absurdity*. By this method, the speaker finds the general statement upon which the reasoning is based, assumes it to be true, and applies it to a case that reveals its absurdity. For example, a legislator once said, "I oppose prohibition because it would deprive saloon men and others of their property." If stated in full, his reasoning would read: "Prohibition is wrong because men should be allowed to own that which injures the public." His opponent in debate applied this general statement to a case that made it seem absurd. He said, "If you are right, then we should not confiscate the *property* of a man who sells milk from a tubercular cow."

The second method is called *turning the tables*. By this method, a debater turns an argument of his opponent to his own advantage. Lincoln made use of this kind of logic in his Cooper Union speech. (Reading Lesson VII, 5, page 153.) The Southerners had said, in substance, "According to Washington's Farewell Address, the North stands condemned." Stated in full, their reasoning would read: "Washington condemns the North because he condemns all sectionalism." Lincoln turned this general statement with greater force against his opponents, saying, "Then Washington condemns you even more than he condemns us, for you would bring about sectionalism in the interests of slavery, and he was opposed to slavery."

The third method is called *putting one's opponent in a dilemma*. This can be done when the opposing speaker is inconsistent. Again we find an example in the debates of Abraham Lincoln. His opponent, Judge Stephen A. Douglas, before the election of 1856, reasoned: "The national government should not prohibit slavery in the territories, because *the people in the territories have a right to vote slavery up or down*." After the election, he reasoned: "A man has a right to hold his slave even in a territory, because *slaves are property*." Lincoln took the two general statements on which Judge Douglas had based his conclusions and showed that they were inconsistent. "Judge Douglas," he said, "is claiming that a thing can be lawfully prohibited where it has a lawful right to stay." This keen analysis of his arguments placed the "Judge" in a dilemma; for, if he abandoned his first argument, he would lose the votes of Northern Democrats; while if he abandoned the second argument, he would lose the votes of Southern Democrats. When, however, a debater

places before his opponent two courses of action, either of which would be disastrous, he must be careful that there is no third alternative by which his opponent may escape.

III. UNSUPPORTED STATEMENTS

In our attempt to test statements, we may meet with those which are supported neither by fact nor by reasoning. Let us consider two such types of statements.

"Begging" the Question. — A debater is said to beg the question when he assumes as true the very thing which it is his duty to prove. The most common way to "beg" the question is to call the policy of one's opponent by an uncomplimentary name. For example, the opponent of city ownership of street railways may say that it is "socialistic." The debater in favor of city ownership, on the contrary, may show: (1) that everything which people do in common, as street-cleaning, etc., is socialistic in a good sense; (2) that the whole debate is being held to determine whether or not city ownership of street railways goes too far in the direction of pure socialism; (3) that in calling the policy "socialistic" in a bad sense, the first debater is merely assuming what it is his duty to prove.

Ignoring the Question. — A debater ignores the question when he fails to meet the issue. His fault may be due to the fact that he has not analyzed the subject and does not understand the issue. Under these circumstances, he is likely to raise objections to a plan of action but will fail to show that these objections outweigh its merits. Again, he may ignore the issue intentionally because he knows that his case is weak. In such a circumstance, he is likely to substitute for proof an appeal to prejudice or sympathy.

It is only necessary for the opponent to point out this

situation to the audience. Macaulay exposes this fallacy in his attack on the advocates of Charles I, when he says, "We accuse him of having broken his coronation oath and we are told that he kept his marriage vow."

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned (1) that we can test a fact by considering the nature of the authority for the fact. We have learned (2) that we can test reasons by trying to see whether the proof and the statement proved can sensibly be joined by the word *because*. We first applied this method to general statements. When we applied it to special statements, we found that these were always based upon some general statement and that if the general statement could be disproved, the special statement which was based upon it would thereby be disproved. We have learned (3) that we can test unsupported statements by showing that the speaker is either "begging" or ignoring the question.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

PROOF AND ITS TESTS

Introduction.

- I. Difference between a dispute and a debate.
- II. What we have already learned of the importance of proof.
- III. Two elements in proof.
- IV. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. How to test facts.
 - A. Knowledge of authority. — Example.
 - B. Prejudice. — Two examples.
 - C. Necessity of research.
 1. Value of a few good authorities.
- II. How to test arguments.
 - A. Method in general.
 1. Natural working of the mind.

II. B. General conclusions.

1. Conclusion of clubwoman.
2. Reasoning in full.
3. Answer.

C. Special conclusions — based upon general statements.

1. Simple method.

- (a) Known fact to unknown effect.
 - (1) Responsibility.
- (b) Known fact to unknown cause.
 - (1) Prosperity and tariff.
- (c) Resemblance.
 - (1) Parallel case.
 - a. Student control in X High School.
 - (2) Analogy.
 - a. Cabinet system.

2. Complicated methods.

- (a) Reducing to an absurdity.
 - (1) Prohibition.
- (b) Turning the tables.
 - (1) Sectionalism.
- (c) Dilemma.
 - (1) "Squatter sovereignty" and the "Dred Scot" case.
 - (2) Third alternative.

III. Unsupported statements.

A. "Begging" the question.

1. Street railways.

B. Ignoring the question.

1. Failure to analyze.
2. Intentional.
3. Macaulay.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — 1. Read the chapter as far as the topic "Special Conclusions — Simple Methods," and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. A mistake in reasoning is called a fallacy. Point out the fallacy in each of the following:

- a. A small boy said to his uncle, "Keep away from that horse because white horses kick."
- b. A hundred years ago it was held that women were not mentally capable of mastering the higher branches taught in the universities.
- c. Scholarly men do not make good political leaders.

3. Continue reading on the class subject.

Exercise II. — 1. Continue the reading of the chapter as far as the topic "Special Conclusions — Complicated Methods," and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. Point out the fallacy in the following special statements. Write out first the general statement upon which each is based and then disprove it. What kind of reasoning is used in each case?

- a. If you get your feet wet, you will "catch a cold."
- b. You have a cold because you did not take your overcoat last night.
- c. A national referendum should be adopted in the United States because it has been successful in Switzerland.
- d. A republic cannot rule a colony successfully any more than a debating society could bring up a child correctly.

3. Continue reading on the class subject.

Exercise III. — 1. Complete the reading of the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. Classify each of the arguments in Reading Lesson VII (pages 152-154); also the following:

- a. A lawyer said, "A corporation cannot make an oral contract because it has no tongue." The judge replied, "According to your argument, a corporation cannot make a written contract because it has no hand."
- b. The Bible, *Mark* 11: 27-33.
- c. In a debate on the question, "Resolved, That Cleveland's policy with regard to Venezuela should be approved," a debater said, "Cleveland's policy was mere jingoism."
- d. One of the stock arguments against woman suffrage is that it will break up the home.

3. Continue reading on the class subject.

CHAPTER XVI

THE BRIEF

Introduction. — The debater, after analyzing his question and testing his proofs, must give to his subject matter the best possible arrangement. The more anxious a speaker is to accomplish a definite purpose, the more necessary it is that he have a good organization. This fact is attested to by many writers and speakers. Austin Phillips says, "A skeleton is not a thing of beauty; but it is a thing which, more than any other, makes the body erect and strong and swift." Again, John Quincy Adams says, "You will find hundreds of persons able to produce a crowd of good ideas upon any subject for one that can marshal them to advantage. Disposition is to the orator what tactics are to the military art."

We learned in Chapter VII some of the principles which govern the planning of a speech. All of these can and should be applied to the arrangement of a brief, or outline for a debate.

In this chapter we shall study (1) the general structure of a brief, (2) certain rules for form, and (3) the best method of partitioning the material between or among the speakers.

I. GENERAL STRUCTURE OF A BRIEF

Introduction. — The introduction to a brief should *consist of* a short statement of the analysis of the question;

that is, a statement of the definition, necessary historical facts, points admitted by both sides, and the main issue. The aim of the introduction is to make the situation clear to the audience. For this reason, the first affirmative speaker is the only one who handles the introduction to the brief in the final debate. It is necessary, however, that the negative speakers prepare an introduction to their brief also, as this will enable them either to agree or disagree intelligently with the analysis given by the first affirmative speaker.

Body. — The body of the brief, or the argument proper, contains the subject matter used by all of the speakers on one side. The greater part of this chapter will treat of the best method of handling this subject matter from the two standpoints of form and arrangement.

Conclusion. — Although the conclusion which each speaker prepares for his own speech should be the subject of much thought and care, the conclusion to the brief is a very simple matter. It contains merely a summary of the main divisions.

II. RULES FOR FORM

There are certain rules for form in the making of a brief which, if followed, will increase its value not only for the debater himself but also for others.

Relative Importance. — The first rule is: *The relative importance of each idea in the brief should be indicated by its position on the page and by the symbol which precedes it.* The most important general or inclusive statements are begun at the margin and are preceded by Roman numerals. The next most important are indented about half an inch and are preceded by capital letters. Further

subordination is indicated by further indention and the use of other symbols. The following series of symbols is in general use: I, A, 1, (a), (1), a.

If the material following any one symbol is more than sufficient to fill one line, care must be taken to begin the remaining words, not at the margin, but immediately below the word following that particular symbol. In this way, the space at the left of the page is kept clear for the larger headings only, and the reader is able to determine, at a glance, the relative importance of the points. For the same reason, all preceding symbols should be repeated at the top of each page.

Complete Sentences. — The second rule is: *Each idea should be expressed in a complete sentence.* This rule is necessary for the reason that topics do not clearly indicate the character of the argument. If a debater, for instance, places in a brief on "Student Government" merely the topic "Sense of responsibility," he does not indicate whether he wishes to claim that student government is likely to create a sense of responsibility or whether he wishes to claim that it is not likely to do so. In this way the reader is unprepared for what is to follow. If a brief is correctly phrased it will indicate, although in condensed form, the exact position of the debater on each point.

Thought Relation. — The third rule is: *The thought relation between any point and its subordinate points must be expressed by for, or because;* that is, all subordinate points or facts bear the relation of proof to those statements under which they are placed. This, as we learned in Chapter VII, Division III, is the essential difference between the plan for an argument and the plan for an

exposition. The rule does not, therefore, apply to the introduction to a brief which is in the nature of an explanation and should contain no argument.

Refutation, if inserted in the brief, should be governed by the same rule. The argument to be refuted should be clearly stated and then disproved. For example, one might find the following in an affirmative brief on "Woman Suffrage":

1. The claim that women are not well informed on public questions should have little weight, for
 - a. Experience has shown that, as soon as women have been granted the franchise, they proceed, quite as generally as do men, to inform themselves.

If subordinate statements must prove those under which they fall, it is evident that each statement in a brief must contain not more than one idea; for it would be impossible to arrange subordinate points so that they would prove two propositions at the same time. For instance, it would be incorrect to state in a brief, "The new plan would be *safer* and *cheaper* than the old one," for the subordinate facts which would tend to prove the one merit would not tend to prove the other.

III. HOW TO PARTITION THE MATERIAL

Young debaters frequently divide the material so that each speaker is expected to handle three or four points. This is confusing to the audience. The subject matter should be partitioned between two speakers or among three speakers in such a way that each speech will have unity, or, in other words, so that each speaker will be required to support only one main proposition.

Reasonable-Practicable Partition. — Dr. Alden in his

text, *The Art of Debate*, has suggested a partition which works well for three speakers in many questions:

Affirmative

1. X is a reasonable plan.
2. X is a practicable plan.
3. There is no better plan.

Negative

1. X is not a reasonable plan.
2. X is not a practicable plan.
3. Y is a better plan.

This better plan which the negative is permitted to suggest is called its constructive case as distinguished from its destructive attack upon the case of the affirmative. Although the last negative speaker may deal at length with this constructive case, the first negative speaker, when he introduces the argument for his side, should give some idea of its nature, since it would be unfair to give the affirmative no opportunity to consider it until the close of the debate.

The scheme noted above might be adapted to a two-speaker team as follows:

Affirmative

1. There is no more reasonable plan than X.
2. There is no more practicable plan than X.

Negative

1. Y is a more reasonable plan.
2. Y is a more practicable plan.

Partition Based upon the Main Issue. — It is frequently possible for a two-speaker team to deal with the main

issue from two standpoints. Let us suppose that the question is: "Resolved, That capital punishment should be abolished." Analysis will show that the main issue in this question is: "Will the benefit to individuals outweigh the possible injury to society?" The debate then might be partitioned as follows:

Affirmative

1. The abolition of capital punishment would be of great value to the individual.
2. The danger to society from the abolition of capital punishment would be very slight.

Negative

1. Life imprisonment as compared with capital punishment would be of slight value to the individual.
2. The injury to society from the abolition of capital punishment would be very great.

Another example of a partition based upon the main issue will be found in the brief on "Student Government." (Appendix V, b.)

Time Element. — In making a partition, the debater must also consider the amount of time which is necessary to develop each portion of the material. It must be remembered that the first affirmative will need about one-third of his time to present an analysis of the question. If the negative side is not permitted to have an additional refutation speech, the last negative speaker must plan to use a large portion of his time for this purpose. Under these circumstances, it is necessary that the first affirmative and last negative speakers be assigned points that require less extensive handling than other points.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have studied (1) the

general structure of a brief, (2) three rules for form which it is necessary to follow in order to make the brief readable, and (3) the best methods of partitioning the material.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE BRIEF

Introduction.

- I. The value of organization.
 - A. Phillips.
 - B. Adams.
- II. Review of Chapter VII, Divisions I and III.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. General structure of a brief.
 - A. Introduction.
 - 1. What it consists of.
 - 2. Its aim.
 - 3. Why prepared by negative speakers.
 - B. Body.
 - 1. What it contains.
 - C. Conclusion.
 - 1. What it contains.
- II. Rules for form.
 - A. Relative importance.
 - 1. How indicated.
 - 2. Where to place the second line of a point and why.
 - 3. Repetition of preceding symbols.
 - B. Complete sentences.
 - 1. Reason for the rule.
 - 2. Example.
 - C. Thought relation — how expressed.
 - 1. Exception and reason for it.
 - 2. Refutation.
 - 3. One idea only in each statement.
 - (a) Example.

III. How to partition the material. — Unity.**A. Reasonable-practicable partition.****1. Arranged for three speakers.**

(a) Constructive case — when introduced.

2. Arranged for two speakers.**B. Partition based on the main issue.****1. Question of capital punishment.****2. Question of student government.****C. Time element.****1. First affirmative.****2. Last negative.****Conclusion.**

Exercise I. — 1. Read the chapter as far as Division II and be able to recite from the topical outline. Include in your recitation a review of the indicated portions of Chapter VII.

2. Read the specimen brief on "Student Government" (Appendix V, b). Find in it one example of coherence gained by arrangement and one example of emphasis gained by arrangement.

Exercise II. — Complete the reading of the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline. Notice that the specimen brief follows the directions given in the text as to form.

Exercise III. — 1. Write a complete introduction to a brief on the class question, revising, if necessary, the definition and main issue which you framed in connection with Chapter XIV.

2. Write also a partition for a two-speaker team on both sides of the question. This will consist practically of a theme sentence for each speaker. Study the reasonable-practicable partition and the partition based on the main issue, in order to determine which would be best for this particular question.

3. Study your clash of opinion to see whether there are any valuable points which, according to your partition, have not been assigned to one or the other of the speakers.

Exercise IV. — Using the material which you have gathered on the subject, make a brief for the side to which you have been assigned. Arrange it for two speakers. In so doing, take into consideration all of the suggestions made in this chapter. Place in parentheses after each proof the reference from which you obtained the fact.

Exercise V. — Working with your colleague, prepare a brief which will include the material gathered by each of you, and which will be, as far as possible, satisfactory to both.

Exercise VI. — Be able to write in class on any of the following topics:

1. How to Define a Question.
2. How to Find the Main Issue.
3. Value of Analysis.
4. How to Test Facts.
5. How to Test Arguments.
6. Cause and Effect.
7. Argument from Resemblance.
8. Reducing to an Absurdity.
9. Turning the Tables.
10. Dilemma.
11. Begging the Question.
12. Ignoring the Question.
13. The Three Rules for Form in a Brief.
14. The Partition of Material for a Brief.

READING LESSON VIII

The following speech was prepared by Franklin W. Robinson of Long Beach, and formed part of a championship contest which occurred between Long Beach High School and Santa Ana High School, California, May 29, 1908. Although defective in some respects, it is an excellent example of the way in which a speaker may develop a speech from a brief so as to secure unity, coherence, and emphasis:

Resolved, That France should adopt the policy of M. Delcassé in regard to Morocco at the expiration of the Algeciras Convention.

First Affirmative

1. Although we have crossed the Atlantic to find a debatable question, we have not chosen one which is of foreign interest alone. In discussing the problems of Morocco, we deal with world problems. They are found wherever civilization comes into contact with barbarism. They are problems that to-day confront England in Egypt and Germany in West Africa, problems which we ourselves must solve in the Philippines.

2. This uncivilized empire of the Moors, lying there in the north-west corner of Africa, but seven miles from Europe, has tried for many years to withstand the strong arm of civilization, but its strategical position, its vast resources and marvelous fertility are too important to remain unutilized. In recent years all the great powers of Europe have taken measures to gain control of this commercial "prize." M. Delcassé, for seven years the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, came forward in 1904 as the champion of French interests, which he believed to be predominant in this crumbling empire. To gain a free hand in Morocco he first induced England, Spain, and Italy to withdraw their claims in exchange for like concessions elsewhere. His plan was then to bolster up the native government of the Moors and gradually to penetrate the country by pacific methods.

3. But alas for France, such a policy excited the envy of Germany; the "mailed fist" shook aloft the red banner of war. France cowered and Delcassé, the most skillful statesman of the Third Republic, was forced to resign. Germany's interference resulted in a conference of the world powers, which met in 1906 at Algeciras, Spain. Here it

was decided that this apple of discord should be placed under international control. This agreement, however, was to extend over five years and will expire in 1911. At that time it must be determined whether Morocco shall be abandoned to barbarism, whether the present international control shall be continued, or whether the administration shall be entrusted to a single power.

4. We of the affirmative are here this evening to endeavor to prove to you that Morocco should be governed by one power and that the logical candidate for this position is the French Republic.

5. As to the practicability of adopting the first course, namely, the independence of the Moors, there can be no difference of opinion. The country to-day exists in a state of anarchy. We find two pretenders disputing with a weak and indolent Sultan for the throne. Industry is paralyzed and the lives and property of 8,000 Europeans are in constant danger. Such conditions in the twentieth century are intolerable. This mediæval land must submit either to an international force or to the protection of a single power.

6. Will a continuation of the present international control be advisable? When we study the history of such government in Macedonia, we can have little confidence in such a policy. This country is to-day in a worse plight than several years ago, simply because what belongs to everyone belongs to no one. Egyptian history is no less a convincing proof of the ineffectiveness of such control. When the continental powers ruled in Egypt, the country was not only a disgrace to civilization but a menace to the peace of Europe. On this chaos of Eastern barbarism was superimposed a layer of European officials shamelessly scrambling and intriguing for political influence. Not until the administration of this uncivilized country was entrusted to England and England alone, could Lord Cromer bring Egypt to its present state of prosperity. We find, then, that discipline is never effective unless directed by a single hand. European experiments along this line are already sufficiently conclusive.

7. But we need not go beyond the limits of Morocco to gain experience which will warn us against a continuation of the present policy. Her control by a concert of powers has been entirely futile. The deplorable conditions of the country have continued unimproved. France at every step has had to face the jealousy of her German neighbor, who has encouraged the Moors to treat the French with

contempt. With her influence thus destroyed among the natives, France, the only country which can secure reform, is powerless. The English Earl of Meath declares that as a result of the senseless jealousies of European powers, Morocco continues to be a country seething with anarchy and brigandage. The policy of the Moroccan ports testifies to the inadvisability of dividing responsibility when deeds must be done. Spain, who was assigned a share in this task, has not attempted to fulfill her obligations. During the recent attack of the natives on Casa Blanca, France was obliged to undertake alone the defense of foreign interests in that port. Even later attempts at coöperation with Spanish forces have led to quarrels. Thus we see that the Algeciras Convention is a mere makeshift. The powers realize this, for France has had their support on every occasion that circumstances have forced her to overstep the limits of the present arrangement. No; if reforms are to be accomplished in Morocco, a single power must be given control. Do our opponents question this conclusion? Then they must prove that either self-government by the Moors or international control is practicable. This they will find it difficult to do.

8. If, therefore, the responsibility for public safety should remain undivided, we must now determine upon what nation this responsibility should be placed. Since England, Spain, and Italy have willingly surrendered their claims, France would have but one competitor, Germany. If you had an atlas before you and could see that Morocco is like a wedge driven in between the two solid masses of the French North African Empire, you would then have small doubt as to the rightful claimant. But it is not only the geographical position of this country which gives France a title to its control. When we learn that the commercial interests of France in Morocco are five times as great as those of Germany; when we remember that her loan to this native government is fourteen times as large as that of all other countries combined, it is then that we can realize why the common sense of the world is on the side of France. We can understand why the Algeciras Conference recognized her rights, giving to France the predominant share in policing the ports and three shares in the Moroccan National Bank to one share each for all the other powers. In comparison with such interests as these, the claim of Germany is a mere pretense.

9. Not only is French control the logical solution of this troublesome problem, but it is of vital importance to France. Upon the possession of this corner depends the future of the French colonial empire in North Africa. Morocco, the refuge for all the lawless and unruly elements of the desert life, borders Algeria for five hundred miles. This not only enables marauding Moorish bands continually to raid and pillage Algeria at pleasure, but it affords a wide gateway through which a spirit of unrest in Morocco may at any time enter Algeria and from thence spread over her entire empire. When we consider how contagious is the spirit of revolt among a Mohammedan population, we can realize the danger to French interests in North Africa. Alarming as are present conditions, imagine some European rival, such as Germany, permanently encamped in the midst of French colonies, with warlike tribes all around to play with. At any time she could incite this entire Mohammedan Empire to insurrection. France would be obliged to garrison Algeria with 200,000 armed men or leave her colonies defenseless. Such a situation would inevitably lead to a crisis between France and Germany. If, then, France is to avoid complications with her German rival, if she is to maintain her North African Empire, Morocco must be hers.

10. Our opponents may be forced to admit the value of the French claims in Morocco, but they will plead her inability to accomplish the task. They will resurrect all the past mistakes of France in an endeavor to prove that she is a poor colonizer. In refutation of this argument, we have merely to point to the results of French influence in North Africa. She has chastized the Algerian pirates. Within her domains slavery and the slave traffic have been practically abolished. With a whole army of artisans, agriculturists, manufacturers and engineers, she has invaded this dark continent. Barbarism has been supplanted by law and order. Desert wastes have been converted into extensive and productive plantations; railroads have been pushed out in every direction and commerce wonderfully developed. The whole world recognizes the great transformation brought about in Algeria and Tunis. By the French policy in these countries we can forecast the future of the Moorish kingdom. Narrow streets, mud walls, and sun-dried bricks will give way to broad boulevards and modern houses, the donkey driver will be superseded by the *electric train*, the hand flail of the Arab farmer by the steam thresher.

There can be no doubt as to the administrative capacity of the French. They have constituted themselves the civilizing power of the whole region from Senegal to the Barbary coast, a territory larger than that of the United States east of the Rockies. The best title of France to Morocco is the history of her whole career in this vast region.

11. But perhaps our opponents will tell you that the very vastness of the French colonial empire is its weakness. To this we agree in part, but we reply — Let her give up her more remote colonies, if necessary.¹ Let her concentrate in North Africa where her possessions can be defended without the use of an extensive fleet. New Caledonia and Indo-China are mere baubles in importance, as compared with Morocco. This policy is advocated by so eminent a Frenchman as Germain. In fact, it was not absent from the mind of Delcassé when he said in 1904: "It is in her North African Empire that France is assured of remaining a world power. The time may come when the best part of France will be south of the sea."

12. Let us try to grasp the situation as a whole. The African continent is to be eventually parcelled out among the European powers. In this game of colony grabbing, in this art of rescuing from barbarism, France has by no means acquitted herself badly. Here in the northwest corner of her empire lies a country whose potential commerce is estimated at two hundred million a year; the soil of whose plains, so favored by nature but neglected by man, rivals in fertility that of our prairie states; a country, the development of whose resources would be a splendid outlet for French capital. But our opponents will tell you it is not worth the cost. Its Atlas Mountains abound in gold, iron, copper, and coal, the very commodities with which France is poorly provided and which would give her manufacturing supremacy. The passes of these same mountains are the keys which open various trade routes to the interior of the Sahara and which are now closed by the natives. But the negative will brush all these facts lightly aside and tell you that Morocco is a hornet's nest. Again we ask, is it any less a hornet's nest under international control? In view of the murder of Dr. Manchamp and

¹ It may be of interest to the reader to know that on Nov. 4, 1911, Germany gave France a free hand in Morocco in exchange for a portion of the French Congo. (*Independent*, 71: 1007.)

the attack on Casa Blanca, we think not. Our friends on the negative will urge that France lock up the treasures of the Moroccan mountains and the wealth of her arable lands, abandon this North African Empire which has been in the process of formation since the days of the great Napoleon, compromise her great civilizing task of three-fourths of a century, and cringe before the German Kaiser's threat of war. But when my colleague has shown you the present inability of Germany to carry out this threat, I believe you will agree with us that France, at the expiration of this Algeciras Convention in 1911, should rise to her opportunities, recall Delcassé, whom she so ignobly dismissed at the behest of Germany, and thus regain her position of international dignity.

CHAPTER XVII

DEVELOPMENT OF A SPEECH FROM A BRIEF

Introduction. — Although we have already studied the rules for phrasing (Chapter X), the successful application of these rules to argumentative speeches of greater length seems to call for further instruction and illustration.

In this chapter we shall learn how to develop a speech from a brief so as to increase the impression of unity, coherence, and emphasis which we have already attempted to secure in the brief.

I. UNITY

Unity of Each Part. — In the first place, the speaker should see to it that each part of the speech is a unit in itself. This can best be done by the frequent use of summaries. In our study of the two-minute speech, we found that it is necessary to make some reference to the main thought both at the beginning and at the end of the speech. In a longer speech, we should summarize, not only at the beginning and at the end of the whole speech, but we should summarize each main division and each subdivision as we take it up and as we leave it.

The question may arise in the mind of the student: "How many parts shall I have in my speech, or how often shall I summarize?" The number of summaries will depend upon the importance which the speaker attaches to each subhead. It would be safe to say that a summary

sentence should occur at the beginning and at the end of whatever material would be placed in a paragraph if the speech were written.

If a speaker were developing an eight-minute speech from a brief, he might divide his time in one of several ways. Let us look at two suggestions for a division of time.

	<i>First</i>	<i>Second</i>
Introduction	1 minute	1 minute
1st Division	2 "	1 "
2d "	2 "	1 "
3d "	2 "	4 "
Conclusion	1 "	1 "

In each of these cases the speaker, if he were writing the speech, might form each division into one or more paragraphs according to the nature of the material.

Each Unit as a Part of the Whole. — In the second place, the speaker should make it evident that each smaller unit is a definite and necessary part of the larger unit. He should occasionally throw glances back over the whole field and in this way reveal the bearing of each part upon his main proposition. A young speaker often neglects to point out that each bit of evidence proves a subordinate argument which, in turn, supports the main proposition. By so doing he places upon his auditors the duty of unifying his material.

Necessity of Repetition. — All experienced speakers and writers have realized the necessity of frequent repetitions. Even the most intelligent people are rarely impressed by an idea which is stated but once, and this is naturally more true of oral than of written expression. *The need of constant reiteration is rather humorously*

illustrated by a story which Josiah Royce of Harvard University tells about himself. He had written an extensive work on philosophy and had submitted the manuscript to a friend for criticism. After reading it the friend said, "The only fault I find is this: in connection with every step, you tell us that you intend to say a certain thing; then you tell us what it is that you intend to say; then you say it; then you tell us that you have said it; and then you tell us what it is that you have said." "Well," said Professor Royce, good-humoredly, "if, in the end, you know what I did intend to say, I am satisfied."

II. COHERENCE

Transitions. — We have already learned how to make sentences hang together by means of connective words and phrases and by the use of parallel construction. (Chapter X, Division II.) In the longer discourse, the speaker must cause the paragraphs to hang together also. This can be accomplished by the use of the transition sentence, a sentence which occurs at the beginning of a paragraph and which performs a double function. It echoes the thought of the preceding paragraph and introduces the central thought of the paragraph to which it belongs. Occasionally a transition which joins paragraphs is composed of more than one sentence. The hanging together of main divisions is accomplished by the use of transition paragraphs. A transition paragraph makes reference to the idea which is most vital in the preceding division and gives one a bird's-eye view of the line of thought which is to be carried out in the following division.

Their Value. — The word transition means "a crossing over." If the speaker would have his hearers follow him

without effort, he should, by means of transitions, build bridges, as it were, upon which they may cross easily from one idea to the next. He should be careful, however, to see that the transitions are natural and not forced. This will not be difficult if the ideas are so arranged and phrased that each leads naturally to the next, for as Cicero says, "Stones well hewn unite of themselves and without the aid of cement."

III. EMPHASIS

Proportion. — The emphatic or forceful speaker pays due regard to the question of proportion; that is, he devotes a larger amount of time and care to those ideas which are difficult to comprehend and touches more lightly those which are easy to grasp. The young speaker, on the other hand, is tempted to elaborate on those phases of his subject which are most familiar to him or which give him an opportunity for eloquence.

Variety. — Again, the emphatic or forceful speaker seeks variety. No matter how numerous may be his transitions and his summaries, he does not express the same idea twice in the same words. It is only by the repetition of the same idea in varied form that the speaker can drive home his thought with telling effect. Charles James Fox, the great English orator, laid it down as the great principle for one who wished to leave an impression that he turn the same idea around many times and that he hold it up in many different lights.

The emphatic speaker uses every possible means of securing variety. He employs the various kinds of sentence structure (Chapter X, Division III, Variety in Sentence Form). He studies to use the law of climax in

phrasing his summaries. For example, the last sentence of a paragraph is the strongest in that paragraph; the most impressive statement of the thought of a main division is left until the end of that main division. He opens up his speech in a more or less formal way, develops it with increasing strength, and, by the last expression of his idea in the conclusion, leaves a sense of brightness and color and power.

Pictures. — The emphatic speaker knows how to create vivid mental pictures. He studies to do this even in the use of statistics. He knows that "round" numbers are more effective than the exact figures; so he says \$1,000,000 instead of \$1,010,729.17. The first gives a clearer mental picture than the second and is, for all practical purposes, quite as large. If he wishes to compare two amounts, he states the relation between them rather than naming the figures themselves. For instance, in the debate on Morocco, Mr. Robinson said, "The loan of France is fourteen times as large as that of all other countries combined." To have enumerated the loans of the various governments would not only have wasted time, but would also have made a less vivid impression.

The emphatic speaker uses as much concrete material as possible; it may be in the form of words, illustrations, or stories. He may use *purse* instead of *wealth*, *gray hair* instead of *age*, etc. (Review Chapter VI, Division III, last paragraph, for other concrete words.) The forceful speaker illustrates everything. Thomas Wentworth Higginson says, "Plan for one good fact and one good illustration under each head of your subject." James Russell Lowell says, "A metaphor is no argument, though it is sometimes the gunpowder to drive one

home and imbed it in the memory." One secret of the power of Christ's discourses is suggested in the question, "Whereunto shall the kingdom of heaven be likened?"

In the choice of illustrative material, the emphatic speaker is governed by the principle that what is familiar will be more readily pictured in the mind than that which is unfamiliar. An illustration drawn from life at sea might serve to enforce remarks before a Sailor's Union; it would have much less illustrative value if the speaker were delivering an address before a company of bankers. Since a speaker is frequently called upon to address a general audience, he will do well to draw his illustrations as far as possible from the common experiences of mankind.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned some of the ways whereby, in the development of a speech, we may increase the unity, coherence, and emphasis for which we provided in the brief.

The work of composition as described in this chapter may be likened to the formation of a mighty river. As the stream leaves its source it has little power, but, as it proceeds on its way, each canyon and valley contributes its tiny streamlet, until at last, as the main current nears the ocean, it becomes a splendid torrent, cutting deep channels in the soil and furnishing almost unlimited power for the industrial enterprises of man. So, in the ideal speech, the main idea, joined by each contributing idea and guided by a definite purpose, moves forward with ever increasing power to the end.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

DEVELOPMENT OF A SPEECH FROM A BRIEF

Introduction.

- I. Application of rules.
- II. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Unity.
 - A. Unity of each part.
 1. Frequent summaries.
 2. How to determine the number.
 - B. Each unit as a part of the whole.
 1. Method.
 2. Fault of the beginner.
 - C. Necessity of repetition.
 1. Especially in oral expression.
 2. Anecdote of Professor Royce.
- II. Coherence.
 - A. Transitions.
 1. Connective words and parallel construction.
(Review.)
 2. Transition sentence.
 3. Transition paragraph.
 - B. Their value.
 1. Meaning.
 2. Natural. — Cicero.
- III. Emphasis.
 - A. Proportion.
 1. Meaning.
 2. Fault of the beginner.
 - B. Variety.
 1. Repetition of the same idea in different words. —
Fox.
 2. Sentence structure. (Review.)
 3. Climax.
 - (a) Paragraph.
 - (b) Division.
 - (c) Speech.

III. C. Pictures.

1. Statistics.

(a) Round numbers.

(b) Comparisons. — Loans.

2. Concrete material.

(a) Words. (Review.)

(b) Illustrations.

(1) Higginson.

(2) Lowell.

(3) Christ.

(c) Choice of material.

(1) Familiarity.

a. Life at sea.

b. Common experiences.

Conclusion.

I. Summary.

II. Formation of a river compared with the composition of a speech.

Exercise I. — 1. Read the chapter as far as Division II and be able to recite from the topical outline.

2. Compare the speech given in Reading Lesson VIII with the brief which follows. Enclose in a brace those portions of the brief which form the basis of each paragraph and label them with the corresponding paragraph numbers. This exercise will indicate the way in which a speech grows out of a brief.

3. Be able to answer the following questions with reference to the speech on Morocco:

- a. What is the purpose of the first paragraph?
- b. Does the speaker refer to the main issue? Would you prefer to have him do so?
- c. Would he have gained anything by an advance summary of that which he and his colleague wished to prove?
- d. In what paragraphs is the central thought expressed both at the opening and the close of the paragraph?
- e. What instance is there of a summary of a main division?

BRIEF FOR SPEECH

Resolved, That France should adopt the policy of M. Delcassé in regard to Morocco at the expiration of the Algeciras Convention.

Introduction.

- I. The question is of interest to us as well as to foreigners.
- II. Definition and history.
 - A. Morocco is a country in North Africa which has been claimed by several powers.
 - B. M. Delcassé desired to secure Morocco for France.
 1. He persuaded England, Spain, and Italy to withdraw their claims.
 - C. The jealousy of Germany brought about a convention of all the European powers at Algeciras in 1906.
 - D. The convention decided that Morocco should be placed under international control until 1911.
 - E. When this agreement expires, it must be decided whether Morocco shall be given independence, whether international control shall be continued, or whether the control shall be given into the hands of a single power.
- III. Main issue — Is the danger of war with Germany sufficient to deter France from pressing her logical claims? (The question of the possibility of a European war was handled by the second affirmative speaker.)

Affirmative Argument.

- I. Morocco should be given to France, for
 - A. Morocco should be governed by a single power, for
 1. It is incapable of self-government.
 2. A continuation of international control is not advisable, for
 - (a) This is proved by the history of Macedonia and Egypt.
 - (b) The policy has failed in Morocco itself.
- II. That one power should be France and not Germany, for
 - A. France is the logical candidate for the position, for
 1. It would round out her empire.
 2. Her commercial interests are larger than those of any other country.

- B. French control is of vital importance to her, for
1. German control of Morocco would endanger the interests of France in her surrounding empire.
- C. The claim that France is unequal to the task is invalid, for
1. She has proved herself to be a civilizing power in Africa.
 2. If necessary, it would be better for her to give up her more distant colonies in order to hold Morocco.

Conclusion.

- I. Morocco should be governed by a single power.
- II. That power should be France.

Exercise II. — Complete the reading of the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline. Incorporate in your recitation the subject matter of any review which is suggested.

Exercise III. — 1. Underline the connective words used in paragraph 6 of Reading Lesson VIII.

2. Check the transition sentences.

Write the answers to the following questions:

1. Show that the speaker has gained emphasis through proportion.
2. Does the wording of each transition sentence vary from other expressions of the same idea?
3. In what paragraphs is the last sentence a stronger statement of the paragraph-thought than the first sentence? Is there a variety of sentence structure? To prove your answer, select one question and one imperative sentence, one short and one long sentence, one loose and one periodic sentence.
4. Do you find a balanced sentence?
5. Make a list of concrete or special terms which have been used. Opposite each write an abstract or general term which might have been used but with less effectiveness.
6. Find one example of a metaphor or simile.
7. Show that the conclusion summarizes the points of the speech but deals with them in a more impressive way than in the body of the speech.

Exercise IV. — Revise, if necessary, the brief which you prepared in connection with Chapter XVI. Using that portion of it which has been assigned to you as a basis, make a word outline and prepare a six-minute speech. Make use as far as possible of the suggestions given in this chapter.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE HANDLING OF REFUTATION

Introduction. — Much has been learned in Chapter XV, entitled “Proof and Its Tests,” which will enable the debater to be skillful in refutation. He must know, however, not only how to meet the facts and reasoning processes of his opponents, but also how to prepare and handle his refutation to the best advantage.

In this chapter we shall learn (1) how to choose that which should be refuted, (2) how to place refutation both in the principal speech and in the separate refutation speech, and (3) how to phrase it.

I. HOW TO CHOOSE POINTS

Success in refutation depends largely upon the debater’s power to choose wisely that which he wishes to refute. It is a mistake to try to touch upon everything to which it is possible to give the semblance of an answer. An old couplet illustrates this point:

“When one’s proofs are aptly chosen,
Four are as valid as a dozen.”

A debater who would choose “aptly” must analyze constantly and attack or offset those arguments which he thinks have made the most favorable impression upon the audience. This plan may be compared to the efforts of a *football* team to “down” the man with the ball.

II. HOW TO PLACE REFUTATION

The effectiveness of refutation depends to a considerable extent upon the position in which it is placed.

In the Principal Argument. — We shall first consider that which should occur within the allotted time for the principal argument of each debater. Each speaker should plan to reserve at least one-fourth of his time for emergencies. Certain kinds of refutation should be placed at the first of the speech. For example, each speaker, except the first on each side, should summarize the work of his preceding colleague (or colleagues) and, if possible, compare it with the work of his opponents; that is, he should state, from his own point of view, the progress which the debate has made on both sides.

Again, if there is any point which, if not answered, would interfere with the progress of the debate, it should be answered immediately. Should the point be one which a colleague has planned to answer later in connection with his constructive argument, the debater need not refute the argument but should mention this fact, else the audience may think that the team is unable to answer it.

In the majority of instances, however, the best time to refute an objection is not at the first of the speech but in connection with that phase of the question to which the objection refers. This plan will detract less from the unity of the speech and will at the same time add to the force of the refutation. If the debater has prepared his discussion orally with the help of a word outline, it will not be difficult for him to insert here and there ideas which have been suggested by the arguments of his opponents.

In the Separate Refutation Speech. — We shall next consider the separate, or closing refutation speech. (The privilege of a second speech is always granted to one affirmative speaker and sometimes to all speakers.) Each speaker should come upon the platform with a list of points which may require refutation but which have not been met either by his own or by his colleague's prepared speeches. As these points appear in the speeches of his opponents, he should check them on his list.

During the progress of the debate, he should select those which have not been sufficiently answered by his colleagues and arrange them in the form of a word outline. In so doing, he should observe the rules for unity, coherence, and emphasis. Considerations of this kind will not require much time and will prevent the scrappy effect which is usually characteristic of the refutation speech of an immature debater.

He should reserve at least one minute at the last of his speech to summarize his own and his opponent's arguments, and to drive home his own main contention as briefly and pungently as possible.

III. HOW TO PHRASE REFUTATION

The phrasing as well as the choice and placing of refutation must be considered.

Before the Debate. — If a debater has made a clash of opinion, thereby studying his opponent's case as well as his own, he will be able to do much of his phrasing before coming to the platform. Although he cannot anticipate the exact wording in which the ideas will be presented, he can know the subject matter and can frame *a concise* answer for each point.

During the Debate. — As a debater listens to the arguments of his opponents, he should note the language in which they are couched, and should seek, as far as possible, to repeat these words in his refutation. Not only does the reply gain force by being coupled with the exact statement which it aims to refute, but the whole speech is given an atmosphere of spontaneity.

Although the debater can do much more in preparation for refutation than is usually supposed, he must not under any circumstances during the debate allow his brain to relax its vigilance, but must constantly be choosing, arranging, and phrasing.

He should study to vary the phrases with which he opens each point in refutation. An inexperienced debater will repeat many times, "Our opponents say," whereas there are numerous other suitable phrases, such as, "It has been claimed," "The advocates of this plan contend," "Our friends on the affirmative would have you believe."

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned that success in refutation depends (1) on a wise choice of points to be refuted, (2) on effective placing, and (3) on careful phrasing.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE HANDLING OF REFUTATION

Introduction.

- I. Relation to Chapter XV.
- II. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. How to choose points.
 - A. A few points. — Couplet.
 - B. Favorable impression. — Football.

II. How to place refutation.**A. In the principal speech.**

1. Time.
2. At the first.
 - (a) Comparison.
 - (b) Points which interfere.
3. Best place.
 - (a) Reasons.
 - (b) Oral preparation.

B. In the separate refutation speech. — Privilege.

1. Prepared list.
2. Arrangement. — Value.
3. Summary.

III. How to phrase refutation.**A. Before the debate.**

1. Clash of opinion.
2. Concise answer.

B. During the debate.

1. Repetition of exact words. — Reasons.
2. Vigilance.
3. Variety.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

CHAPTER XIX

TEAMWORK

Introduction. — To a judge, good teamwork means merely that the arguments of all the speakers on one side are welded together; in other words, that one speaker does not encroach upon the territory of the other and that each reinforces the other by pointing out the relation between the part developed by himself and that developed by his colleague.

To the debater, however, teamwork signifies more than this. It means the coöperative efforts of the team members during the whole period of preparation. Much of the pleasure of debating work is to be found in its social character. Each can help his fellows to success and each is more or less dependent upon his fellows for success. The double team system for interscholastic debates is an ideal arrangement and furnishes many opportunities for teamwork. According to this system, each school is represented by an affirmative team which debates at the home school and a negative team which visits the rival school.

This chapter will describe the manner in which the affirmative and negative teams of each school may work together and each member contribute to the success of all. Where it is not possible to use the double team system, a team of alternates may be chosen to act as a practice

team. Many of the suggestions made in this division will be helpful to those who engage only in class or interclass debates, although the teamwork for debates of this kind will of necessity be more limited.

I. OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEAMWORK

Opportunities for teamwork occur in every division of the work.

Gathering of Material. — At a meeting held immediately after the teams are chosen, plans should be made for future meetings. The members should choose a presiding officer from among their number and draw up a schedule which shall be satisfactory to all, stating the time and purpose of future meetings. If the members have some general knowledge of the question, they should agree upon a list of topics under which to classify their notes. Unless they are already provided with an extended list of references, they should divide up the work of making one. Each should be assigned the task of copying references from certain years of the *Reader's Guide*. These references, when copied, can be so re-distributed that each member will have both recent and earlier references. One member may collect and distribute the books on the subject, while another may write for government or other publications.

Conferences to discuss notes should be held at intervals of several days throughout the period allotted to reading. At each meeting, the leader should ask for all information which has been gathered on a certain topic. After that has been given and its bearings discussed, he should call for the next topic, and so on. If the proposition is one upon which very little has been written, each member may

be able to read everything relating to it, but if the material is extensive, it is better to place some reliance upon the other members and so cover the ground. Each member may star valuable references and pass them on. Whether or not each does all of the reading, an occasional conference to discuss the points gathered will be found extremely helpful. If the discussions are well managed, the debater will read to much more purpose after a meeting than before, for he will realize more clearly which matters are essential to the issue and which are not.

The Making of a Brief. — Before commencing the brief, the affirmative speakers should give to the negative speakers any negative material which they may have gathered, and *vice versa*. The teams should then work separately until the brief is completed. Each member of the team should make a brief for the whole side, seeking to include within it every item of real worth with its accompanying reference. The members of the team may then meet, compare results, and incorporate the best in a brief which will be as nearly as possible satisfactory to all.

This method brings better results than other methods. If the members of the team try to work together in the arrangement of material before their ideas have been clarified, much time is wasted. Nor can the team determine offhand upon a partition so that each can work up a portion of the brief, for one cannot be sure that he has made the best choice of main propositions until he has studied and grouped his minor propositions, considering carefully their relations to each other. Again, it is only by this method that each speaker can come to know thoroughly the work of his colleague.

Oral Practice. — When the brief has been completed,

the members of the team should exchange notes, so that each will have those which bear upon his division of the question. Each member should then prepare for a practice debate by making a word outline based upon his brief and by extemporizing from it several times.

The practice debates should be conducted, in regard to both time limits and refutation, as nearly as possible in the same way as the final public debate. It is advisable to have one practice debate in which the colleagues shall change places. This scheme has several advantages: it gives an opportunity for each debater to aid his colleague by making suggestions as to the better handling of his material; it affords a chance for valuable practice in extemporizing; and it makes each speaker more thoroughly familiar with the material handled by his colleague. During the debate, each member should make a note of criticisms on all other speakers and, after the debate is over, the leader should ask for criticisms on each speaker in turn.

Preparation for Refutation. — At least two days before the public debate the members of each team should meet and make a combined list of points which are likely to arise for refutation. To these points each member should write concise answers. At a second meeting these answers should be compared and the best chosen and copied.

II. IMPORTANCE OF TEAMWORK

It will be seen from the above that teamwork is one of the fine points of the game and that the success of an interscholastic debate depends very largely upon the spirit of mutual helpfulness. During the period of preparation the periods assigned for team-meeting must be

considered of first importance by the debaters; other calls upon their time must be temporarily set aside. The best way to secure this coöperation is to draw up at the outset a schedule which shall be satisfactory to all and to which each shall promise his allegiance. The following is an example of a schedule drawn up by a team which had six weeks for preparation:

Mar. 17, Monday.	Team chosen.
" 18, Tuesday.	Topics chosen and references assigned.
" 25, Tuesday.	Reading Conference.
Apr. 1, Tuesday.	Reading Conference.
" 5, Saturday.	Visit to University Library.
" 8, Tuesday.	Reading Conference.
" 11, Friday.	Brief completed.
" 15, Tuesday.	First Practice Debate.
" 18, Friday.	Second Practice Debate.
" 21, Monday.	Third Practice Debate.
" 23, Wednesday.	Speeches written and read.
" 24, Thursday.	List of points in refutation.
" 25, Friday.	List of answers.
" 26, Saturday.	Final Public Contest.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) that opportunities for coöperation, or teamwork, occur in every part of the work; and (2) that the success of a debate depends very largely upon the spirit of mutual helpfulness.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

TEAMWORK

Introduction.

- I. What teamwork means to a judge.
- II. What teamwork means to a debater.
 - A. Double-team system.

III. Purpose of the chapter.

A. Alternates.

B. Class and interclass debates.

Body.

I. Opportunities for teamwork.

A. Gathering of material.

1. First meeting.

(a) Presiding officer and schedule.

(b) List of topics.

(c) References.

(1) *Readers' Guide*. — Re-distributed.

(2) Books.

(3) Publications.

2. Later conferences.

(a) Discussion by topics.

(b) How to cover a large field.

(c) Value of the conferences.

B. The making of a brief.

1. Exchange of notes.

2. Separate before combined work.

(a) Reasons.

(1) Time.

(2) Impossibility of offhand partition.

(3) Work of colleague.

C. Oral practice.

1. Exchange of notes.

2. Preparation for practice debate.

3. Conduct of debate.

(a) Time limits and refutation.

(b) Exchange of places with colleague.

(1) Advantages.

a. Suggestions.

b. Practice.

c. Familiarity.

(c) Criticisms.

D. Preparation for refutation.

1. Combined list of points.

2. Answers compared.

II. Importance of teamwork.

- A. Secret of success.
- B. Necessary sacrifices.
- C. Schedule.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

CHAPTER XX

ATTITUDE

Introduction. — Since debating is a game, the debater should maintain throughout an attitude of fair play and good sportsmanship.

In this chapter we shall consider the debater's attitude (1) toward his subject, (2) toward his opponents, and (3) toward the result.

I. ATTITUDE TOWARD THE SUBJECT

Two Sides. — The debater should remember that there are two sides to every debatable question. Because of this, it is unreasonable to try to deny or refute everything; a speaker will be much more persuasive if he will admit that there is truth on the other side; in fact he should go with his opponents as far as possible. This habit is said to have been, in large measure, the cause of Lincoln's persuasiveness. The debater should remember that there are those in the audience, and it may be the judges, who agree with his opponents. The game does not consist in fighting one's opponents but in convincing one's hearers. It is necessary, therefore, to find some common point of view and to work from that toward conviction.

Misrepresentation. — A good debater will never misrepresent the facts. If debaters differ on a definition of the question, the judges should and probably will discount *the side* which attempts to uphold a far-fetched technical

meaning. Dr. R. M. Alden says in his *Art of Debate*, "Those lawyers appear to be most largely successful who are not given to fighting on the technicalities, but who give the impression that the fundamental merits of the case are their chief concern."

Wit. — Again, the debater should guard himself against flippancy. Witty and smart replies, unless accompanied by sound logic, are very likely to be rated by judges as an attempt to cover superficial thinking.

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD OPPONENTS

A debater should be courteous toward his opponents under all circumstances, not only because courtesy is a virtue but because it is a matter of self-interest. To lower one's opponent does not raise oneself in the estimation of the public. Even if the language of one's opponent is offensive, it will not pay to respond to personalities. Dignity and self-control are always winning qualities.

III. ATTITUDE TOWARD THE RESULT

If He Loses. — If a debater loses the decision he should not blame the judges, for they have probably done their best to judge impartially. In the first place, it is not always possible to be wholly uninfluenced by one's own knowledge and convictions on a subject. Again, all human beings are almost unconsciously attracted or repelled by certain personalities. These facts have become apparent in the discussions of judges at the close of a "tryout." Teachers with the kindest intentions and with a sincere desire to choose the best team to represent the school have found themselves with widely divergent notions as to the merit of the work which has been presented.

In addition to this, the presentations are often of such equal merit that it is difficult to decide between them. There are a great many things to be considered in a very short space of time. Delivery and diction must be given due attention, but it is the argument which is most difficult to pass upon, with "righteous judgment." The judge must not only decide upon the relative value of the evidence and reasoning as it is brought forth, but he must also, if possible, compare what has been brought forward with what might have been brought forward.

Furthermore, judges frequently serve at great sacrifice of time and convenience, and they should receive the gratitude of losers as well as of winners.

If He Wins. — If the debater wins the decision, he should not think that he has become a finished speaker, for his next opponent may bring him to defeat. The following extract from a poem entitled "Failure," by Edmund Vance Cooke, is well worth memorizing:

"If you never have failed, it's an even guess
You never have won a high success.
If you never have sent your bullet wide,
You never have put a mark inside.
If you never have more than met your match,
I guess you never have toed the scratch."

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned that the debater should be (1) honest toward his subject, (2) courteous toward his opponents, and (3) neither discouraged nor too much elated over the result.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

ATTITUDE

Introduction.

- I. Sportsmanship.
- II. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Attitude toward the subject.
 - A. Two sides.
 - 1. Persuasiveness.
 - (a) Lincoln.
 - (b) Judges.
 - (c) What the game consists of. — Common point
 - B. Misrepresentation.
 - 1. Technicalities. — Dr. Alden.
 - C. Wit.
- II. Attitude toward opponents.
 - A. A matter of self-interest.
- III. Attitude toward the result.
 - A. If he loses.
 - 1. Personal difficulties of judges.
 - (a) Their own knowledge.
 - (b) Personalities.
 - (c) "Tryouts."
 - 2. Many things to be considered.
 - 3. Sacrifices.
 - B. If he wins. — Cooke.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Revise the six-minute speech which you prepared in connection with Chapter XVI. Working with your colleague, be prepared to debate the same subject. Use as many as possible of the suggestions made in Chapters XVIII, XIX, and XX.

As the speeches are given the members of the class should act as judges, keeping a tally of the points. In the decision more weight

should be given to argument than to diction and delivery. Each speaker should be allowed six minutes for his main speech and two minutes for a separate refutation speech.

Exercise III. — 1. How to Get Unity in an Argument of Length.

2. How to Get Coherence in an Argument of Length.
3. How to Get Emphasis in an Argument of Length.
4. Choice of Refutation.
5. Placing of Refutation.
6. Phrasing of Refutation.
7. Teamwork in Gathering Material.
8. Teamwork in Making a Brief.
9. Teamwork in Oral Practice.
10. Attitude of a Debater.

READING LESSON IX

INTRODUCTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

1. From a eulogy delivered by John Hay at the official exercises commemorative of President McKinley:

"For the third time the Congress of the United States are assembled to commemorate the life and death of a President slain by the hand of an assassin. The attention of the future historian will be attracted to the features which reappear with startling sameness in all three of these awful crimes: the uselessness, the utter lack of consequence of the act; the obscurity, the insignificance of the criminal; the blamelessness — so far as in our sphere of existence the best of men may be held blameless — of the victim. Not one of our murdered Presidents had an enemy in the world; they were all men of democratic instincts who could never have offended the most jealous advocates of equality; they were of kindly and generous nature, to whom wrong or injustice was impossible; of moderate fortune, whose slender means nobody could envy. They were men of austere virtue, of tender heart, of eminent abilities, which they had devoted with single minds to the good of the Republic. If ever men walked before God and men without blame, it was these three rulers of our people."

2. From *The New South* by Henry W. Grady:

"'There was a South of slavery and secession — that South is dead. There is a South of union and freedom — that South, thank God, is living, breathing, growing every hour.' These words, delivered from the immortal lips of Benjamin H. Hill, at Tammany Hall, in 1866, true then, and truer now, I shall make my text to-night."

3. From *The Man with the Muck-rake*, by Theodore Roosevelt:

"In Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* you may recall the description of the Man with the Muck-rake, the man who could look no way but downward, with the muck-rake in his hand; who was offered a celestial crown for his muck-rake; but who would neither look up nor regard the crown he was offered, but continued to rake to himself the filth of the floor.

"In *Pilgrim's Progress* the Man with the Muck-rake is set forth

as the example of him whose vision is fixed on carnal instead of on spiritual things. Yet he also typifies the man who in this life consistently refuses to see aught that is lofty, and fixes his eyes with solemn intentness only on that which is vile and debasing. Now it is very necessary that we should not flinch from seeing what is vile and debasing. There is filth on the floor, and it must be scraped up with the muck-rake; and there are times and places where this service is the most needed of all the services that can be performed. But the man who never does anything else, who never thinks or speaks or writes save of his feats with the muck-rake, speedily becomes, not a help to society, not an incitement to good, but one of the most potent forces for evil."

4. Introduction to an oration on Abraham Lincoln, by Booker T. Washington.

"You ask that which he found a piece of property and turned into a free American citizen to speak to you to-night on Abraham Lincoln. I am not fitted by ancestry or training to be your teacher to-night, for, as I have stated, I was born a slave.

"My first knowledge of Abraham Lincoln came in this way. I was awakened early one morning before the dawn of day as I lay wrapt in a bundle of rags on the dirt floor of our slave cabin, by the prayers of my mother, just before leaving for her day's work, as she was kneeling over my body, earnestly praying that Abraham Lincoln might succeed, and that one day she and her boy might be free. You give me the opportunity here this evening to celebrate with you and the nation the answer to that prayer."

5. Introduction to Roosevelt's Address on "The Strenuous Life":

"In speaking to you, men of the greatest city of the West, men of the State which gave to the country Lincoln and Grant, men who preëminently and distinctly embody all that is most American in the American character, I wish to preach, not the doctrine of ignoble ease, but the doctrine of the strenuous life, the life of toil and effort, of labor and strife, to preach that highest form of success which comes, not to the man who desires mere easy peace, but to the man who does not shrink from danger, from hardship, or from bitter toil, and who out of these wins the splendid ultimate triumph."

6. Introduction to an oration on Decoration Day by Chauncey M. Depew:

"At the Centennial Exhibition was a picture remarkable for its naturalness and the story it portrayed. It was the Battle of Monmouth. An aged fifer, his gray locks streaming in the wind, with eager step was leading his company on to the fray. A drummer boy by his side was looking anxiously into the old man's eyes, and catching from him the tune and the step of the music of liberty. So upon this day, from the lives and the deeds of the men who fought in the great Civil War, from the causes for which they died and the results which they achieved, we take our step and learn our lesson of how to preserve and perpetuate the union of these States."

7. Webster concludes his speech before the Agricultural Society of England:

"With respect to the occasion which has called us together, I beg to repeat the gratification which I have felt in passing a day in such a company, and to conclude with the most fervent expression of my wish for the prosperity and usefulness of the Agricultural Society of England."

8. Conclusion to an appeal by David Dudley Field in behalf of the Children's Aid Society:

"This paper has already reached the limit intended. It has not gone into particulars; on the contrary, it has been carefully confined to certain general propositions. Their development and execution are matters of detail. The aim of the article is attained if it has helped to impress upon the reader this lesson, partly social and partly political: take care of the children, and the men and women will take care of themselves."

9. From William Jennings Bryan's reply to the Notification Committee, Campaign of 1900:

"I conceive a national destiny surpassing the glories of the present and the past — a destiny which meets the responsibilities of to-day and measures up to the possibilities of the future. Behold a Republic resting securely upon the foundation stone quarried by revolutionary

patriots from the mountain of eternal truth. . . . Behold a Republic in which civil and religious liberty stimulates all to earnest endeavor, and in which the law restrains every hand uplifted for a neighbor's injury — a Republic in which every citizen is a sovereign, but in which no one cares to wear a crown. Behold a Republic standing erect while empires all around are bowed beneath the weight of their own armaments — a Republic whose flag is loved while other flags are only feared. Behold a Republic increasing in population, in wealth, in strength, and in influence, solving the problems of civilization and hastening the coming of a universal brotherhood — a Republic which shakes thrones and dissolves aristocracies by its silent example, and gives light and inspiration to those who sit in darkness. Behold a Republic gradually but surely becoming the supreme factor in the world's progress and the accepted arbiter of the world's disputes — a Republic whose history, like the path of the just, 'is as the shining light that shineth more and more unto the perfect day.'"

10. Conclusion to "Concord Oration" by George William Curtis. In the body of his address, he described the way in which the Minute Men of the Revolution had vanquished their enemies:

"No royal governor, indeed, sits in yon stately capitol, no hostile fleet for many a year has vexed the waters of our coasts, nor is any army but our own ever likely to tread our soil. Not such are our enemies to-day. They do not come, proudly stepping to the drum-beat, with bayonets flashing in the morning sun. But wherever party spirit shall strain the ancient guaranties of freedom; or bigotry and ignorance shall lay their fatal hands on education; or the arrogance of caste shall strike at equal rights; or corruption shall poison the very springs of national life, — there, Minute Men of Liberty, are *your* Lexington Green and Concord Bridge. And as you love your country and your kind, and would have your children rise up and call you blessed, spare not the enemy. Over the hills, out of the earth, down from the clouds, pour in resistless might. Fire from every rock and tree, from door and window, from hearthstone and chamber. Hang upon his flank from morn till sunset, and so, through a land blazing with indignation, hurl the hordes of ignorance and corruption and injustice back, — back in utter defeat and ruin."

11. Conclusion of an address by George William Curtis at the laying of the corner stone of Washington Memorial Arch:

"What he said to the convention he says to us. It is the voice of the heroic spirit which in council and in the field has made, and alone will preserve, our America. It is the voice that will speak from the Memorial Arch to all coming generations of Americans. Whatever may betide; whatever war, foreign or domestic, may threaten; whatever specious sophistry may assail the political conscience of the country, or bribery of place or money corrupt its political action; above the roar of the mob and the insidious clamor of the demagogue, the voice of Washington will still be the voice of American patriotism and of manly honor. — 'Let us raise a standard to which the wise and honest can repair; the event is in the hands of God.'"

12. Conclusion of a speech by Sargent S. Prentiss, delivered at Jackson, Miss., in August, 1835:

"Here we cannot but pause to contemplate two wonderful men, belonging to the same age and to the same nation: Napoleon and Lafayette. Their names excite no kindred emotions; their fates no kindred sympathies. Napoleon — the child of Destiny — the thunderbolt of war — the victor in a hundred battles — the dispenser of thrones and dominions; he who scaled the Alps and reclined beneath the pyramids, whose word was fate and whose wish was law. Lafayette — the volunteer of Freedom — the advocate of human rights — the defender of civil liberty — the patriot and the philanthropist — the beloved of the good and the free. Napoleon — the vanquished warrior, ignobly flying from the field of Waterloo, the wild beast, ravaging all Europe in his wrath, hunted down by the banded nations and caged far away upon an ocean-girded rock. Lafayette — a watchword by which men excite each other to deeds of worth and daring; whose home has become the Mecca of Freedom, toward which the pilgrims of Liberty turn their eyes from every quarter of the globe. Napoleon was the red and fiery comet, shooting wildly through the realms of space and scattering pestilence and terror among the nations. Lafayette was the pure and brilliant planet, beneath whose grateful beams the mariner directs his bark and the shepherd tends his flocks. Napoleon died and a few old warriors —

the scattered relics of Marengo and Austerlitz — bewailed their chief. Lafayette is dead and the tears of a civilized world attest how deep is the mourning for his loss. Such is and always will be the difference of feeling toward a benefactor and a conqueror of the human race."

CHAPTER XXI

INTRODUCTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction. — The introductions and conclusions to the short speeches composed in connection with earlier chapters consisted of single sentences. The theme sentence formed the introduction, while a varied statement of the main idea made the conclusion. From this practice we learned that introductions and conclusions should be brief. In longer speeches, they should bear about the same relation to the whole speech that one sentence does to a two-minute speech. An audience does not enjoy a speaker who takes too long to come to the point, or one who starts to end his speech and then does not do so.

Success in formal debating does not require an extended study of introductions and conclusions. In connection with brief-making we considered the nature of an introduction to a debate. We learned that its purpose was primarily to explain the question; that it was given only by the first speaker; and that it should occupy not more than one-third of his time. We saw, also, from a study of Reading Lesson VIII that the conclusion of a speech in a debate is practically a summary of the main argument.

When, however, we take up the study of various kinds of longer speeches, other than the debate, we find that the speaker may use various means to accomplish his purposes. In this chapter we shall learn that a speaker may wish to accomplish by his introduction and conclusion either one

or both of two objects: he may wish to establish right relations with his audience, or he may wish to give unity to his speech.

I. PERSONAL INTRODUCTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

If the speaker's main purpose is to establish right relations with his audience, he will use an introduction and a conclusion of a personal nature. His introduction may treat of his relation to his subject. The opening paragraph of Booker T. Washington's oration on Abraham Lincoln is a good example. Again, the introduction may treat of the speaker's relation to his audience, as does that of Lincoln to the citizens of Ohio. (Reading Lesson X, 1, page 220.) In his conclusion, the speaker will attempt to take graceful leave of his audience. (See the conclusion to Webster's Address before the Agricultural Society of England, Reading Lesson IX, 7.)

The personal note is usually appropriate in speeches made on social occasions, and is frequently not out of place in persuasive speeches. The speaker must be careful, however, that by its use he does not give an impression of egotism. A person of experience and reputation can open and close a speech in a personal way with better grace than can a young speaker. It is, perhaps, needless to say that this form of introduction and conclusion should never be used in a formal debate.

II. UNITY

If a speaker's main purpose is to increase the unity of his speech through his introduction and conclusion, he has various methods at his disposal.

Introduction. — In his introduction he should try in

some way to sound the keynote of his speech. He may state the theme of his speech clearly and fully, as Roosevelt did in his address on "The Strenuous Life." This form is better adapted to argument, however, than to other forms of address.

Again, the speaker may use what is called a general introduction. In this, he makes reference to the larger subject, one phase of which he expects to discuss more fully. This method was used by John Hay in his eulogy on President McKinley. (Reading Lesson IX, 1.)

Perhaps the most artistic method of opening an address is merely to suggest the theme of the discourse. This can be done in several ways: Mr. Depew, in his oration on Decoration Day, introduced his theme by a description of the fifer and the drummer boy. (Reading Lesson IX, 6); Mr. Grady, in his oration on "The New South," used an appropriate quotation (Reading Lesson IX, 2); and Mr. Roosevelt, in his speech, "The Man with the Muck-rake," uses a literary allusion. A speaker should be very sure that his story, quotation, or illustration really does sound the keynote of his speech. A story which is "dragged" in in an attempt merely to create a laugh is an unfortunate beginning.

Conclusion. — In his conclusion, the speaker should try to gain unity by emphasizing the main thought. Such a conclusion may be called an emphatic as distinguished from a personal conclusion. It should be the climax of the whole speech; that is, the speaker should have "saved his best wine until the last."

There are three kinds of emphatic conclusions. The simplest form is the summary. (See Reading Lesson IX, 8, for example.) A summary should be more than a mere

enumeration of the points that have been made. It should throw some new light on the central thought and should sound in a most impressive way the keynote of the speech. It may take the form of a contrast, as in the case of Prentiss' eulogy of Lafayette. (Reading Lesson IX, 12.)

An emphatic conclusion may look forward into the future, expressing hope in regard to growth or results. Such is the conclusion of Bryan's reply to the Notification Committee. (Reading Lesson IX, 9.) It may make an application of certain truths to the life of the people, and may urge the listeners to action. The conclusion of the Concord Oration by George William Curtis is an excellent example of this method.

The third kind of emphatic conclusion gives final expression to the thought in the form of a quotation. (See Reading Lesson IX, 11.)

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned the various ways in which a speaker may use an introduction and conclusion either to establish right relations with his audience or to increase the unity of his speech.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

INTRODUCTION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction.

- I. Brevity necessary.
- II. Nature of the introduction and conclusion in a debate.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Personal introductions and conclusions.
 - A. Purpose. — How gained.
 1. Relation to subject.
 2. Relation to audience.
 3. Conclusion.

- I. B. When appropriate.
C. Danger.
- II. Unity.
 - A. Introduction.
 - 1. Statement of theme.
 - 2. General introduction.
 - 3. Suggestion.
 - (a) Description.
 - (b) Quotation.
 - (c) Literary or historical allusion.
 - (1) Not dragged in.
 - B. Conclusion.
 - 1. Emphatic.
 - (a) Climax.
 - 2. Three kinds.
 - (a) Summary.
 - (1) Not an enumeration.
 - (2) Contrast.
 - (b) Looking forward.
 - (1) Hope.
 - (2) Urging to action.
 - (c) Quotation.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

READING LESSON X

EXAMPLES OF PERSUASIVE SPEECH

1. Introduction to a speech by Abraham Lincoln:

"Fellow Citizens of the State of Ohio: I cannot fail to remember that I appear for the first time before an audience in this now great State, — an audience that is accustomed to hear such speakers as Corwin, and Chase, and Wade, and many other renowned men; and remembering this, I feel that it will be well for you, as for me, that you should not raise your expectations to that standard to which you would have been justified in raising them had one of these distinguished men appeared before you. You would perhaps be only preparing disappointment for yourselves, and, as a consequence of your disappointment, mortification for me. I hope, therefore, that you will commence with very moderate expectations; and perhaps if you will give me your attention, I shall be able to interest you in a moderate degree."

2. Garfield, speaking as a Representative in the House in reference to a certain action, began, "I wish I could be proved a false prophet in reference to the result of this action. I wish that I could be overwhelmed with the proof that I am utterly mistaken in my views."

3. In a debate on "The Recall of Judges," the first affirmative speaker began as follows:

"The advocates of recall do not fail to recognize the absolute integrity and high scholarship of many who occupy judicial positions. The movement for popular recall is not an attack upon the bench as a whole; it is merely an attempt to correct certain conditions and to remove such individuals as may, in time, serve to bring the judiciary into disrepute."

4. From William Jennings Bryan's speech on the Chicago Platform:

"I would be presumptuous indeed to present myself against the distinguished gentleman to whom you have listened, if this were a mere measuring of abilities; but this is not a contest between persons. *The humblest citizen* in all the land, when clad in the armor of a

righteous cause, is stronger than all the hosts of error. I come to speak to you in defense of a cause as holy as the cause of liberty, the cause of humanity."

5. This oration was delivered by Napoleon to the Army of Italy on May 15, 1796, six days after the battle of Lodi. In response, the French beat back the Austrians into Austria after nearly one year of fierce fighting:

"Soldiers! You have precipitated yourselves like a torrent from the Apennines. You have overwhelmed or swept before you all that opposed your march. Piedmont, delivered from Austrian oppression, has returned to her natural sentiments of peace and friendship toward France. Milan is yours; and over all Lombardy floats the flag of the Republic. To your generosity only do the Dukes of Parma and Modena now owe their political existence. The army which proudly threatened you finds no remaining barrier of defense against your courage. The Po, the Ticino, the Adda, could not stop you a single day. Those vaunted ramparts of Italy proved insufficient; you traversed them as rapidly as you did the Apennines. Successes so numerous and brilliant have carried joy to the heart of your country. Your representatives have decreed a festival to be celebrated in all the communes of the Republic, in honor of your victories. There will your fathers, mothers, wives, sisters, all who hold you dear, rejoice over your triumphs, and boast that you belong to them.

"Yes, soldiers, you have done much; but much still remains for you to do. Shall it be said of us that we knew how to conquer, but not how to profit by victory? Shall posterity reproach us with having found a Capua in Lombardy? Nay, fellow soldiers! I see you already eager to cry 'To arms!' Inaction fatigues you; and days lost to glory are to you days lost to happiness. Let us, then, begone! We have yet many forced marches to make; enemies to vanquish; laurels to gather; and injuries to avenge! Let those who have sharpened the poniards of civil war in France, who have pusillanimously assassinated our Ministers, who have burned our vessels at Toulon, — let them now tremble! The hour of vengeance has knolled!

"But let not the people be disquieted. We are the friends of every people; and more especially of the descendants of the Brutuses, the Scipios, and other great men to whom we look as bright exemplars.

To reestablish the Capitol; to place there with honor the statues of the heroes who made it memorable; to rouse the Roman people, unnerved by many centuries of oppression, — such will be some of the fruits of our victories. They will constitute an epoch for posterity. To you, soldiers, will belong the immortal honor of redeeming the fairest portion of Europe. The French people, free and respected by the whole world, shall give to Europe a glorious peace, which shall indemnify it for all the sacrifices which it has borne the last six years. Then, by your own firesides you shall repose, and your fellow citizens, when they point out any one of you, shall say, 'He belonged to the army of Italy!'"

6. Introduction to an address by Woodrow Wilson, entitled "The Bible and Progress":

"I come here to-night to speak of the Bible as the book of the people, not the book of the minister of the Gospel, not the special book of the priest from which to set forth some occult, unknown doctrine withheld from the common understanding of men, but a great book of revelation — the people's book of revelation."

7. From a speech at Liverpool by Henry Ward Beecher, October 16, 1863:

"It is a matter of very little consequence to me, personally, whether I speak here to-night or not. But one thing is very certain, if you do permit me to speak here to-night, you will hear very plain talking. You will not find me to be a man that dared to speak about Great Britain three thousand miles off and then is afraid to speak to Great Britain when he stands on her shores, and if I do not mistake the tone and temper of English men, they had rather have a man who opposes them in a manly way than a sneak who argues with them in an unmanly way. Now if I can carry you with me by sound conviction, I shall be immensely glad; but if I cannot carry you with me by facts and sound arguments, I do not wish you to go with me at all, and all that I ask is simply fair play."

8. Rudyard Kipling made the following address in London, February 20, 1915, before a meeting called for the purpose of raising subscriptions to furnish the armies with music:

"I am greatly honored by the lord mayor's request to speak be-

fore you. The most useful thing that a civilian can do in these busy days is to speak as little as possible, and, if he feels moved to write, to confine his efforts to his check-book. But this is an exception to that very good rule.

"We do not know the present strength of our new armies. Even if we did it would not be necessary to make it public. We may assume there are now several battalions in Great Britain which did not exist at the end of last July, and some of these battalions are in London. Nor is it any part of our national scheme of things to explain how far they are prepared for the work ahead of them. They were quite rightly born in silence for the rest of their lives. At present, unfortunately, most of them are obliged to walk in silence, or to no better accompaniment than whistles, concertinas, and other meritorious but inadequate instruments of music which they provide for themselves.

"In the beginning this did not matter so much. There were more urgent needs to be met; but now that the new armies are what they are, we, who cannot assist them by joining their ranks, owe it to them to provide them with more worthy music for their help and comfort and honor. I am not a musician, so if I speak as a barbarian, forgive me.

"From the lowest point of view, a few drums and fifes in a battalion are worth five extra miles on a route march — quite apart from the fact that they swing the battalion back to quarters composed and happy in its mind; where there is no route-marching, the mere come-and-go, the roll and flourish of the drums and fifes round barracks is as warming and cheering as the sight of a fire in a room.

"A band — not necessarily a full band, but a band of a few brasses and wood winds — is immensely valuable in districts where troops are billeted. It revives memories; it quickens associations; it opens and unites the hearts of men more surely than any other appeal. In that respect it assists recruiting perhaps more than any other agency. The tunes that it employs and the words that go with them may seem very far removed from heroism or devotion; but the magic and the compelling power are there to make men's souls realize certain truths which their minds might doubt.

"More than that. No one — not even the adjutant — can say for certain where the soul of a battalion lives; but the expression of that soul is most often found in the band. It stands to reason that

a body of 1200 men whose lives are pledged to each other's keeping must have some common means of expressing their thoughts and moods to themselves and to their world. The band can feel the mood and interpret it to their world.

"A wise and sympathetic bandmaster — and most that I have known have been that — can lift a battalion out of depression, cheer it in sickness, and steady and recall it to itself in times of almost unendurable strain. You will remember a beautiful poem by Sir Henry Newbolt describing how a squadron of 'weary big dragoons' were led on to renewed effort by the strains of a penny whistle and a child's drum taken from a toyshop in a wrecked French town.

"And I remember in a cholera camp in India, where the men were suffering very badly, the band of the 10th Lincolns started a regimental sing-song one night with that queer defiant tune, 'The Lincolnshire Poacher.' It was merely their regimental march which the men had heard a thousand times. There was nothing in it except — except all England — all the East Coast — all the fun and daring and horseplay of young men bucketing about the big pastures by moonlight. But, as it was given, very softly, at that bad time in that terrible camp of death, it was the one thing in the world which could have restored — as it did — shaken men to pride, honor, and self-control. This is, perhaps, an extreme case, but by no means an exceptional one. A man who has had any experience of the service can testify that a battalion is better for music at every turn — happier, easier to handle, and with greater zest for its daily routine if that routine is sweetened by melody and rhythm — melody for the mind and rhythm for the body.

"Our new armies have not been well served in this essential. Of all the admirable qualities they have shown, none is more wonderful than the spirit which has carried them through the laborious and distasteful groundwork of their calling without a note of music except what that same indomitable spirit supplied — out of its own head. We have all seen them marching through the country or through London streets in absolute silence, and the crowd through which they pass as silent as themselves for lack of the one medium that could convey and glorify the thoughts which are in all men's minds to-day.

"We are a tongue-tied breed at the best. The band can declare *on our behalf*, without shame or shyness, something of what we feel,

and so help us to reach a hand towards the men who have risen up to save us.

"We have had many proofs in the last six months that people only want to be told what the new armies require and it will be freely and gladly given. The army needs music — its own music — for, more than any other calling, soldiers do not live by bread alone. From time immemorial the man who offers his life for his land has been compassed at every turn of his service by elaborate ceremonial and observance of which music is no small part — carefully designed to prepare and uphold him. It is not expedient nor seemly that any portion of that ritual should be slurred or omitted now."

CHAPTER XXII

THE PERSUASIVE SPEECH

Introduction. — The persuasive speech, as we have learned in an earlier chapter, aims to secure action on the part of the listeners. It does this by an appeal both to the feelings and to the understanding. We found, however, that if the speaker appeals to the feelings only, and does not support his appeal by sound reasoning, the impulse to act is likely to be of short duration. We have, therefore, spent much time in studying the process of argument. But again we find that conviction alone, which is the aim of the debater, is not always sufficient to secure action. The reasoning processes of men are apt to be modified by their education and personal interests and, as a result, it becomes necessary for the persuasive speaker to remove old prejudices and arouse new motives. The really effective persuasive speech produces convictions and creates a willingness to act upon those convictions.

According to Archbishop Magee, there are three kinds of speakers: (1) the kind you can't listen to; (2) the kind you can listen to; and (3) the kind you can't help listening to. This last class has learned the art of persuasive speech.

Persuasiveness is much more than the gift of making emotional appeals. In this chapter we shall learn: (1) that it involves the right attitude on the part of the speaker toward himself, his subject, and his audience; (2) that it includes the ability of the speaker to adapt his

message to his audience; (3) that it lies in the power of the speaker to create a sense of unity in his audience.

I. RIGHT ATTITUDE

Toward Himself. — The persuasive speaker should be modest and, at the same time, self-respecting and self-reliant. Lincoln's introduction to his speech in Ohio furnishes an excellent example of sincere modesty. It scarcely need be said that affectation of modesty would be repellent. The extract from Beecher's speech at Liverpool reveals to us the persuasive power of an attitude which is outspoken and self-reliant, yet not discourteous.

Toward his Subject. — A persuasive speaker must have absolute faith in the dignity and righteousness of the cause for which he stands. Mr. Holyoake says, "The true use of the art of public speaking is the protection of the unfriended truth and the vindication of the imperiled right." If, then, we are putting our art to its highest use, we need not lack this one element of persuasiveness — confidence in the worthiness of our cause. This attitude is well illustrated by Bryan's speech on the Chicago Platform.

The truly persuasive speaker is in earnest about his subject. He talks, not to display his ability but to accomplish results. As some one has said, "He does not present a beautiful picture and then stand in front of it." His emotional appeals are successful because he first feels the emotion himself. This absolute sincerity has been a characteristic of all great persuasive speakers. Pericles, the great orator of the Golden Age, who swayed Athens as he would, is said to have always prayed to the gods before speaking that he might utter no words unsuited to his auditors and to the occasion.

Toward his Audience. — The speaker who is persuasive is always courteous and even complimentary. Lincoln said, "I always assume that my audiences are in many things wiser than I am, and I say the most sensible thing I can to them. I never found that they did not understand me." The persuasive speaker feels and expresses confidence in the ability and willingness of his hearers to do what he urges them to do. Napoleon's address to his soldiers breathes confidence in every line.

Again, the persuasive speaker expresses his views with moderation in order that he may not arouse unnecessary antagonism on the part of those who differ from him. Coleridge expresses the need of such moderation when he says, "Truth is a good dog, but beware of barking too closely at the heels of error, lest you get your brains kicked out." Reading Lesson X, 3 furnishes an example of a mild statement of the speaker's position — one which is calculated to allay prejudice.

II. ADAPTATION TO AUDIENCE

The persuasive speaker seeks to adapt his message to his audience. One who knows his message but not his audience is not likely to reach them with his message. When a speaker is planning for a given occasion, he should ask himself these questions: What does my audience already know about my subject? What do they usually think and talk about? What can I use of their knowledge as an illustration of my own?

Henry Ward Beecher was a master of persuasive discourse. When he lectured in the British Isles to gain support for the Northern cause, he showed that he understood this principle perfectly. When speaking in Glas-

gow, where laborers were interested in building blockade runners, he pointed out the evil effects of slavery upon labor; but, when speaking to a cultured audience in Edinburgh, he dealt with the philosophy and history of slavery.

III. SENSE OF UNITY IN THE AUDIENCE

The persuasive speaker tries to create in his audience a sense of unity. He changes them from persons of varying purposes to a group with a common purpose. He may accomplish this in various ways. A very common method is to tell a story. Edgar R. Jones says in *The Art of the Orator*, "Once individuals are got to laugh together or cry together, they are in the speaker's hand; he has them bound to him with a cord of sympathy; he can sway them as one mind."

Again, he may refer to personages who are revered by all or by a large proportion of his audience; such as Washington, Lincoln, or Christ. He may appeal to ideals which all human beings have in common, such as self-interest, freedom, honesty, chivalry, duty, patriotism, love of home and family. It is best to begin with as high motives as possible and lead to higher ones. The average man, although he may at times be secretly governed by sordid motives, yields more readily to the speaker who appeals to motives that are generally commended.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have learned: (1) that the persuasive speaker has the right attitude toward himself, his subject, and his audience; (2) that he adapts his message to his audience; and (3) that he creates in his audience a sense of unity.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE PERSUASIVE SPEECH

Introduction.

- I. Why the effective speech includes both argument and persuasion.
- II. Three kinds of speakers.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Right attitude.
 - A. Toward himself.
 1. Modesty.
 2. Self-reliance.
 - B. Toward his subject.
 1. Faith — Holyoake.
 2. Earnestness.
 - (a) Picture.
 - (b) Emotion.
 - (c) Pericles.
 - C. Toward his audience.
 1. Courteous — Lincoln.
 2. Confidence — Napoleon.
 3. Moderation.
 - (a) Coleridge.
 - (b) Example.
- II. Adaptation to audience.
 - A. Questions.
 - B. Beecher.
- III. Sense of unity in the audience.
 - A. From individuals to group — Jones.
 - B. Personages.
 - C. Ideals.
 1. High motives — reason.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Re-read Dickens' speech (Reading Lesson III, page

54) and Kipling's speech (Reading Lesson X, page 220) and find as many illustrations as possible of points mentioned in this chapter.

Exercise III. — Read the following speeches of St. Paul in the New Testament and make a list of their persuasive points. To the Athenians (*Acts*, xvii: 22-32); before Agrippa (*Acts*, xxvi).

Exercise IV. — Prepare a speech (of not more than four minutes) which has a persuasive purpose. Consult the list of subjects for persuasive speeches (Appendix VII) for suggestions as to a topic. Use as many as possible of the suggestions given in this chapter.

Exercise V. — Repeat the speech prepared in Exercise IV, but adapt it to an altogether different audience.

Exercise VI. — *Written Review.* Be able to write in class upon any of the following topics:

1. Personal Introductions and Conclusions.
2. The Introduction as a Keynote.
3. The Emphatic Conclusion.
4. Attitude of the Persuasive Speaker.
5. Adaptation to the Audience.
6. Creation of a Sense of Unity in the Audience.

READING LESSON XI

ORATIONS

1. Speech by William Cullen Bryant as president of the day at a banquet of the Burns Club of New York, in celebration of the centenary of the poet's birth:¹

"On rising to begin the announcement of the regular toasts for this evening, my first duty is to thank my excellent friends of the Burns Club, with whom I do not now meet for the first time, and whose annual festivities are among the pleasantest I ever attended, for the honor they have done me in calling me to the chair I occupy — an honor the more to be prized on account of the rare occasion on which it is bestowed. An honor which can be conferred but once in a century is an honor indeed. This evening the memory of Burns will be celebrated as it never was before. His fame, from the time when he first appeared before the world as a poet, has been growing and brightening, as the morning brightens into the perfect day. There never was a time when his merits were so freely acknowledged as now; when the common consent of the literary world placed him so high, or spoke his praises with so little intermixture of disparagement; when the anniversary of his birth could have awakened so general and fervent an enthusiasm. If we could imagine a human being endowed with the power of making himself, through the medium of his senses, a witness of whatever is passing on the face of the globe, what a series of festivities, what successive manifestations of the love and admiration which all who speak our language bear to the Scottish poet, would present themselves to his observation, accompanying the shadow of this night in its circuit round the earth. . . . Well has our great poet deserved this universal commemoration — for who has written like him? What poem descriptive of rural manners and virtues, rural life in its simplicity and dignity — yet without a single false outline or touch of false coloring — clings to our memories and lives in our bosoms like his 'Cotter's Saturday Night'? What humorous narrative in verse can be compared with his 'Tam o'Shan-

¹ From *Chronicle of the Hundredth Birthday of Robert Burns*, edited by James Ballantine. Edinburgh and London, 1859.

ter'? From the fall of Adam to his time, I believe, there was nothing written in the vein of his 'Mountain Daisy'; others have caught his spirit from that poem, but who among them all has excelled him? Of all the convivial songs I have ever seen in any language, there is none so overflowing with the spirit of conviviality, so joyous, so contagious, as his song of 'Willie brewed a peck o' maut.' What love songs are sweeter and tenderer than those of Burns? What song addresses itself so movingly to our love of old friends and our pleasant recollections of old days as his 'Auld Lang Syne,' or to the domestic affections so powerfully as his 'John Anderson'?

"You heard yesterday, my friends, and you will hear againto-day, better things said of the genius of Burns than I can say. That will be your gain and mine. But there is one observation which, if I have not already tried your patience too far, I would ask your leave to make. If Burns was thus great among poets, it was not because he stood higher than they by any preëminence of a creative and fertile imagination. Original, affluent, and active his imagination certainly was, and it was always kept under the guidance of a masculine and vigorous understanding; but it is the feeling which lives in his poems that gives them their supreme mastery over the minds of men. Burns was thus great because God breathed into him, in larger measure than into other men, the spirit of that love which constitutes his own essence, and made him, more than other men, a living soul. Burns was great by the greatness of his sympathies — sympathies acute and delicate, yet large, comprehensive, boundless. They were warmest and strongest toward those of his own kind, yet they overflowed upon all sentient beings: upon the animal in his stall, upon the 'wee, sleekit, cowerin', timorous beastie,' dislodged from her autumnal covert; upon the hare wounded by the sportsman; upon the very field flower, overturned by his share and crushed among the stubble. And in all this we feel that there is nothing strained or exaggerated, nothing affected or put on, nothing childish or silly, but that all is true, genuine, manly, noble. We honor, we venerate the poet while we read; we take the expression of these sympathies to our hearts, and fold it in our memory forever.

"And now, having said all I purposed to say — to your weariness, I fear — I proceed to give out the first regular toast in which, if you do not heartily join, I shall wonder why you are here. I give you

'The Day We Celebrate' — a day 'which makes the whole world kin,' uniting by sympathetic emotion men of all degrees, in every land, in honoring the memory and the genius of Robert Burns, one of 'the few, the immortal names that were not born to die.'"

2. Portion of a eulogy of Lincoln, by John Philip Newman:

"Human glory is often fickle as the winds, and transient as a summer day; but Abraham Lincoln's place in history is assured. All the symbols of this world's admiration are his. He is embalmed in song, recorded in history, eulogized in panegyric, cast in bronze, sculptured in marble, painted on canvas, enshrined in the hearts of his countrymen, and lives in the memories of mankind. Some men are brilliant in their times, but their words and deeds are of little worth to history; but his mission was as large as his country, vast as humanity, enduring as time. Some men are not honored by their contemporaries, and die neglected. Here is one more honored than any other man while living, more revered when dying, and destined to be loved to the last syllable of recorded time. He has this three-fold greatness — great in life, great in death, great in the history of the world. Lincoln will grow upon the attention and affections of posterity, because he saved the life of the greatest nation, whose ever widening influence is to bless humanity. Measured by this standard, Lincoln shall live in history from age to age.

"Great men appear in groups, and in groups they disappear from the vision of the world; but we do not love or hate men in groups. We speak of Gutenberg and his coadjutors, of Washington and his generals, of Lincoln and his cabinet; but when the day of judgment comes, we crown the inventor of printing, we place the laurel on the brow of the father of his country, and the chaplet of renown upon the head of the savior of the republic.

"Some men are great from the littleness of their surroundings; but he only is great who is great amid greatness. Lincoln had great associates — Seward, the sagacious diplomatist; Chase, the eminent financier; Stanton, the incomparable Secretary of War, — with illustrious senators and soldiers. None could take his part or fill his position.

"Lincoln stands forth on the page of history, unique in his character, and magnetic in his individuality. Like Milton's angel, he

was an original conception. He was raised up for his times. He was a leader of leaders. By instinct the common heart trusted him. He was of the people and for the people. He had been poor and laborious; but greatness did not change the tone of his spirit or lessen the sympathies of his nature. His character was strangely symmetrical. He was temperate, without austerity; brave, without rashness; constant, without obstinacy. Not excepting Washington, who inherited wealth and high social position, Lincoln is the fullest representative American in our national annals. He had touched every round in the human ladder. He illustrated the possibilities of our citizenship. We are not ashamed of his humble origin. We are proud of his greatness."

3. From an address by Booker T. Washington at the opening of the Atlanta Exposition:

Mr. Washington in *Up from Slavery* describes his own feelings and the circumstances surrounding the delivery of the speech as follows: "I remembered that I had been a slave—it was easily possible that some of my former owners might be present to hear me speak. I knew, too, that this was the first time in the entire history of the negro that a member of my race had been asked to speak from the same platform with white Southern men and women on any important national occasion. When I arose to speak, there was considerable cheering, especially from the colored people. As I remember it now the thing that was uppermost in my mind was the desire to say something that would cement the friendship of the races and bring about hearty coöperation between them. . . . The first thing that I remember, after I finished speaking, was that Governor Bullock rushed across the platform and took me by the hand, and that others did the same."

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Board of Directors and Citizens:

One-third of the population of the South is of the Negro race. No enterprise seeking the material, civil, or moral welfare of this section can disregard this element of our population and reach the highest success. I but convey to you, Mr. President and Directors, the sentiment of the masses of my race when I say that in no way have the value and manhood of the American Negro been more

fittingly and generously recognized than by the managers of this magnificent Exposition at every stage of its progress. It is a recognition that will do more to cement the friendship of the two races than any occurrence since the dawn of our freedom.

Not only this, but the opportunity here afforded will awaken among us a new era of industrial progress. Ignorant and inexperienced, it is not strange that in the first years of our new life we began at the top instead of at the bottom; that a seat in Congress or the State legislature was more sought than real estate or industrial skill; that the political convention or stump speaking had more attractions than starting a dairy, farm, or truck garden.

A ship lost at sea for many days suddenly sighted a friendly vessel. From the mast of the unfortunate vessel was seen a signal, "Water, water; we die of thirst!" The answer from the friendly vessel at once came back, "Cast down your bucket where you are." A second time the signal, "Water, water; send us water!" ran up from the distressed vessel, and was answered, "Cast down your bucket where you are." And a third and fourth signal for water was answered, "Cast down your bucket where you are." The captain of the distressed vessel, at last heeding the injunction, cast down his bucket, and it came up full of fresh sparkling water from the mouth of the Amazon River. To those of my race who depend on bettering their condition in a foreign land or who underestimate the importance of cultivating friendly relations with the Southern white man, who is their next-door neighbor, I would say: "Cast down your bucket where you are" — cast it down in making friends in every manly way of the people of all races by whom we are surrounded.

Cast it down in agriculture, mechanics, in commerce, in domestic service, and in the professions. And in this connection it is well to bear in mind that whatever other sins the South may be called to bear, when it comes to business, pure and simple, it is in the South that the Negro is given a man's chance in the commercial world, and in nothing is this Exposition more eloquent than in emphasizing this chance. Our greatest danger is that in the great leap from slavery to freedom we may overlook the fact that the masses of us are to live by the productions of our hands, and fail to keep in mind that we shall prosper in proportion as we learn to dignify and glorify common labor and put brains and skill into the common occupations of life;

shall prosper in proportion as we learn to draw the line between the superficial and the substantial, the ornamental gewgaws of life and the useful. No race can prosper till it learns that there is as much dignity in tilling a field as in writing a poem. It is at the bottom of life we must begin, and not at the top. Nor should we permit our grievances to overshadow our opportunities.

To those of the white race who look to the incoming of those of foreign birth and strange tongue and habits for the prosperity of the South, were I permitted I would repeat what I say to my own race, "Cast down your bucket where you are." Cast it down among the eight millions of Negroes whose habits you know, whose fidelity and love you have tested in days when to have proved treacherous meant the ruin of your firesides. Cast down your bucket among these people who have, without strikes and labor wars, tilled your fields, cleared your forests, builded your railroads and cities, and brought forth treasures from the bowels of the earth, and helped make possible this magnificent representation of the progress of the South. Casting down your bucket among my people, helping and encouraging them as you are doing on these grounds to education of head, hand, and heart, you will find that they will buy your surplus land, make blossom the waste places in your fields, and run your factories. While doing this, you can be sure in the future, as in the past, that you and your families will be surrounded by the most patient, faithful, law-abiding, and unresentful people that the world has seen. As we have proved our loyalty to you in the past, in nursing your children, watching by the sick-bed of your mothers and fathers, and often following them with tear-dimmed eyes to their graves, so in the future, in our humble way, we shall stand by you with a devotion that no foreigner can approach, ready to lay down our lives, if need be, in defense of yours, interlacing our industrial, commercial, civil, and religious life with yours in a way that shall make the interests of both races one. In all things that are purely social, we can be as separate as the fingers, yet as the hand in all things essential to mutual progress.

There is no defense or security for any of us except in the highest intelligence and development of all. If anywhere there are efforts tending to curtail the fullest growth of the Negro, let these efforts be turned into stimulating, encouraging, and making him the most useful and intelligent citizen. Effort or means so invested will pay

a thousand per cent interest. These efforts will be twice blessed —
“blessing him that gives and him that takes.”

There is no escape through law of man or God from the inevitable:

The laws of changeless justice bind
Oppressor with oppressed;
And close as sin and suffering joined
We march to fate abreast.

Nearly sixteen millions of hands will aid you in pulling the load upward, or they will pull against you the load downward. We shall constitute one-third and more of the ignorance and crime of the South, or one-third its intelligence and progress; we shall contribute one-third to the business and industrial prosperity of the South, or we shall prove a veritable body of death, stagnating, depressing, retarding every effort to advance the body politic.

Gentlemen of the Exposition, as we present to you our humble effort at an exhibition of our progress, you must not expect overmuch. Starting thirty years ago with ownership here and there in a few quilts and pumpkins and chickens (gathered from miscellaneous sources), remember the path that has led from these to the inventions and production of agricultural implements, buggies, steam-engines, newspapers, books, statuary, carving, paintings, the management of drug stores and banks, has not been trodden without contact with thorns and thistles. While we take pride in what we exhibit as a result of our independent efforts, we do not for a moment forget that our part in this exhibition would fall far short of your expectations but for the constant help that has come to our educational life, not only from the Southern States, but especially from Northern philanthropists, who have made their gifts a constant stream of blessing and encouragement.

The wisest among my race understand that the agitation of questions of social equality is the extremest folly, and that progress in the enjoyment of all the privileges that will come to us must be the result of severe and constant struggle rather than of artificial forcing. No race that has anything to contribute to the markets of the world is long in any degree ostracized. It is important and right that all privileges of the law be ours, but it is vastly more important that we be prepared for the exercise of these privileges. The opportunity

to earn a dollar in a factory just now is worth infinitely more than the opportunity to spend a dollar in an opera-house.

In conclusion, may I repeat that nothing in thirty years has given us more hope and encouragement, and drawn us so near to you of the white race, as this opportunity offered by the Exposition; and here bending, as it were, over the altar that represents the struggles of your race and mine, both starting practically empty-handed three decades ago, I pledge that in your effort to work out the great and intricate problem which God has laid at the doors of the South, you shall have at all times the patient, sympathetic help of my race; only let this be constantly in mind, that, while from representations in these buildings of the product of field, of forest, of mine, of factory, letters, and art, much good will come, yet far above and beyond material benefits will be that higher good, that, let us pray God, will come in a blotting out of sectional differences and racial animosities and suspicions, in a determination to administer absolute justice, in a willing obedience among all classes to the mandates of the law. This, this, coupled with our material prosperity, will bring into our beloved South a new heaven and a new earth.

4. Address of Judge Peter J. Shields at the Dedication of the New College of Agriculture, November 20, 1912; from the *University of California Chronicle*, Vol. 15, p. 113:

It would be impossible, in the few moments which the circumstances permit, for me to fittingly express the significance of this hour. It is the culmination of long years of waiting, of the slow growth of a Western civilization; the fruit of fine hopes and patient, unselfish efforts. It is the beginning of a larger effort to teach men the sound principles which have stood the test of experience and which in all ages have given security and happiness to the peoples that have practiced them. . . . I should like to speak a few words in praise of those who have helped in this work, but they do not need it. It is enough that their wish has been realized; that the truth for which they labored, to-day has received this high sanction. I should like to speak of agriculture as one of the noblest of all occupations, but it is in submission to that truth that we are here and it does not need expression.

We have contended warmly over what was education, as to what

were its aids and its agencies. Some of us have doubted whether men might be educated through things, through a knowledge of nature and the practice of her laws. It would be interesting to-day to take up that discussion, but it would be fruitless. That cause has been tried, and to-day, in monumental form, we record the verdict.

It will be enough to point to the most tangible lesson of history that agricultural industry has been the surest foundation of a state and the extent to which it was fostered has been the measure of a people's progress.

Mysterious Egypt, of which we know only that it was great, at the height of its development made slaves of its farmers. Magnificent India founded its future upon agriculturalists whom she condemned to a degraded caste. Rome plundered and oppressed her farmers to a condition of poverty and discredit. They are all gone, and volumes have been written in an effort to trace the cause. It could be written in a sentence. They built their societies from the top, and devoted their efforts to the worship of false social quantities. That we should honor agriculture is the lesson of their dread experience. But we cannot do this as a duty; it must spring from an honest estimate. This building stands for this appreciation and respect. It will help us to honor agriculture, through making it honorable. It will unfold its mysteries, it will exhibit its beauties, it will develop its strength till an admiring and respectful nation will proclaim its primacy.

This country was founded upon the principle that labor is honorable, and we made agriculture our chief pursuit. We have grown in devotion to the truth. We have got our vigor from the soil. Most of our ablest men have been country-bred. Our distinctive institutions were nourished there. Its ideals have colored and formed our policies. In recent years, this dominance has been threatened and our problems have multiplied. This way lies their correction.

I will not attempt any elaboration of this structure's significance. It stands as a monument to the new agriculture, the agriculture of thought and knowledge which has come to redeem the industry and to secure for it its proportionate place in our civilization. It means the beauty and the strength of the out-of-doors. It means the peace and solitude where men think profoundly and adhere tenaciously, where strong characters are formed and high purposes are nourished. *It means* food and raiment and shelter; the primal things that go to

the roots of life, and supply the basis of all our institutions. It stands for toil and proclaims the honest eminence of useful labor. It stands for simplicity as the eternal measure of permanence. It calls men out from the crowded places to where the horizon is wide, where the majesty of nature prompts man to its imitation.

We are multiplying very rapidly the complications of our civilization and we ask ourselves to what limits we may safely go in the direction we call progress. The answer is here, that we cannot get far away from the standards this structure proclaims, from the country-bred man, the man who is constantly measuring his work with the work of nature and thus keeping it true. Life may become very fine and high, but it must remain natural to keep its strength. We should look at this hall as a beacon lighting the way in which we may go in safety. It will stand a perpetual reproach to frivolity, artificiality, and idleness; it will supply an antidote for the dependence of the submerged, and for the arrogance of the over-fortunate. It proclaims the farmer the type man of America; it admonishes us to train him — but keep him a farmer.

Agriculture is not only an industry, it is a life. This building stands for the preservation of that life, for its elevation and such a distribution of its ideals as will flavor the whole life of our country.

This is indeed a great day for California. We are taking stock of our condition. When we find a people engaged as we are to-day, met in the spirit in which we are met, we know that they are going forward on the broad highway of life, that their estimate of social values is true, and that they have avoided the temptations to which other nations have succumbed.

Different states or societies at different times have built monuments to the principles they worshipped; to express their faiths or to point their hopes. A mystic race built the Pyramids. To-day these stand, lonesome sentinels in the desert, typifying nothing save that races not soundly founded will perish. Tamerlane built a structure of skulls in testimony of his faith in war and its all-conquering power. It crumbled scarcely as fast as his leadership, his empire, his people, and his race; as the false principles upon which he had based the success of his efforts. The Pagan races erected temples to earth-made gods, but these people vanished, their gods are forgotten, their temples have disappeared or their fragments remain in proof that what is

not true cannot be perpetuated. The triumphal arches of the Romans serve only to remind us that the judgment which called them such was mistaken, and that a race devoted to conquest and oppression will disappear. The monuments upon the torture fields of Smithfield and Salem are the tombstones of dead institutions.

The monument we have built here was built in another spirit. It was built in submission to an all-prevading law — built in harmony with nature. It was built to serve human need and not the greed or vanity of privilege. It was built in devotion to knowledge and industry, the everlasting things. It will survive, in the things it stands for, while the world lasts. Tens of millions of people will come to this fair land to live here a more involved and elaborated life than the world has elsewhere known. If they keep their eyes upon this temple and walk in its shadow, if they practice the truths for which it stands, their society will live as long.

To-day we reaffirm that faith. Let us rededicate ourselves to the efforts which have brought about this hour. Let us build this structure higher and broader until its spirit is in every heart and until every hearthstone in our country becomes part of its foundation.

5. Portion of an address at the Dedication of the Doe Library Building of the University of California, by the Librarian, Joseph C. Rowell. Taken from the *University of California Chronicle*, Vol. 14, p. 351. Mr. Rowell devoted more than half of his speech to an interesting retrospect of the gradual growth of the library. The following is an extract:

"The fortunes of the library inseparably followed those of the University. Up under the eaves of Brayton Hall were arranged some few hundreds of books on history, literature, and philosophy, together with well thumbed classics, and dust lay deep on theological and scientific treatises of honorably ancient dates.

"How the aspect of the place brightened when in 1871 a large gift of modern books arrived, brilliant in gilded calf, fresh from the publishers! Then students abandoned the chess table and climbed upward to consult the eighth edition of Britannica, to open dainty volumes of poets, to lay the foundation of an essay on Emerson, or to spend an indolent, happy hour over Bulwer or Thackeray."

6. Columbian Oration delivered at Dedicatory Ceremonies of the World's Fair, Chicago, Oct. 21, 1892, by Chauncey M. Depew.

Introduction:

"This day belongs not to America alone, but to the world. The results of the event it commemorates are the heritage of the peoples of every race and clime. We celebrate the emancipation of man. The preparation was the work of almost countless centuries; the realization was the revelation of one. The Cross on Calvary was hope; the cross raised on San Salvador was opportunity. But for the first; Columbus would never have sailed; but for the second, there would have been no place for the planting, the nurture, and the expansion of civil and religious liberty. . . . The exhibition of arts and sciences, of industries and inventions, of education and civilization which the Republic of the United States will here present, and to which, through its Chief Magistrate, it invites all nations, condenses and displays the flower and fruitage of this transcendent miracle."

The body might be summarized as follows:

History: Feudalism, monarchy, new learning all prepared the way, but freedom could develop no farther on the old continent.

The event must be.

The Man: Columbus was especially prepared. Importance of Isabella.

Result: Immigration has resulted in a loyal foreign population. This has become a land of opportunity.

Conclusion:

"All hail, Columbus, discoverer, dreamer, hero, apostle! We here, of every race and country, recognize the horizon which bounded his vision and the infinite scope of his genius. The voice of gratitude and praise for all the blessings which have been showered upon mankind by his adventure is limited to no language, but is uttered in every tongue. Neither marble nor brass can fitly form his statue. Continents are his monuments, and unnumbered millions, present and to come, who enjoy in their liberty and happiness the fruits of his faith, will reverently guard and preserve, from century to century, his name and fame."

7. Parts of an address by Chauncey M. Depew in laying the corner stone of the New York Athletic Club:

Introduction:

"The laying of the corner stone of what is to be the most complete, commodious and perfect home of athletics in the world is in harmony with the times. It is a significant note of progress and prosperity."

He then refers to the large place which athletics held in Greek life and the contempt with which it was regarded in our own country fifty years ago. He commends it as an antidote for the mental and physical disorders which grew out of the strenuous life of the 19th century.

Conclusion:

"So the healthful conditions of manly athletics have become the best helpers to the preacher, the best assistants to the doctor, the best workers for the temperance societies, the best correctors of private morals, and the best aids to good citizenship. . . . Upon this corner stone let arise a home for honorable athletics, a home which shall frown on the brutality of some of its forms; a home that shall encourage every kind of healthful sport."

PART IV—SPEECHES FOR SPECIAL OCCASIONS

CHAPTER XXIII

THE ORATION

Introduction. — Oratory is the highest form of public speech. Henry Ward Beecher says that oratory "is the consecration of the whole man to the noblest purpose to which one can address himself — the education and inspiration of his fellowmen." The persuasive speech discussed in the preceding chapter may be called an oration when it has the following characteristics: (1) dignity of theme, (2) elegance of diction, and (3) impressiveness of delivery. If all of these elements are necessary, it is evident that success in oratory requires previous practice in other forms of public address. R. C. Ringwalt says, "The art of the actor and reader is joined with that of the man of letters, the philosopher, and statesman in producing the great orator."

The oration differs from the debate in that it deals mainly with ideas and facts which are undisputed. "The audience," says Professor Sears, "expects to have its convictions strengthened rather than changed." For this reason, argument takes a subordinate place in the oration. Certain kinds of argument can be used effectively: for example, historic parallel, analogy, dilemma, and reduction to absurdity; but the predominating forms of discourse are description, narration, and exposition. For

this reason, the orator can appeal more powerfully to the feelings than can the debater. His ideas are of such a character that they meet with no opposition from the intellects of his hearers and he is therefore free to address himself to their hearts.

This chapter will deal with such orations as might be delivered (1) in honor of a person, (2) in honor of an event, and (3) at commencement exercises.

I. ORATION IN HONOR OF A PERSON

Eulogy or Memorial Tribute. — The oration in honor of a person is called a eulogy when it is delivered at the anniversary of either the birth or death of some great character, or at the dedication of a monument in his honor. If it is delivered immediately after the death of a prominent or beloved fellow citizen, it is often called a memorial tribute.

More than Biographical. — Although a eulogy deals with biographical material, it should be more than a mere biography. The speaker should try to discover the essence of the man's work, what he stood for, and what is likely to be his place in history. He should then use historical facts to show how this work was developed and accomplished in his life. Let us notice a few examples. Alfred Austin, at the 500th anniversary of the death of Chaucer, treats of the old English poet as the embodiment of English character. Honorable George F. Hoar, in his eulogy on Webster, emphasizes his greatest achievement as that of arousing in the American people a spirit of nationality. Bryant, in his tribute to Burns, shows that the chief source of his power over men was his comprehensive sympathy. Such treatment of the facts is much

more interesting and impressive than a simple historical narrative, and it embodies that fundamental principle of unity which is essential to a work of art.

Should the Whole Truth be Told? — The character portrait should be faithful, but faithful to the best phases of character rather than to the worst. Strong points are brought into relief by their nearness to the weak points, but the right proportion must be maintained. It is the duty of the speaker to find and present that ruling purpose, ambition, or principle which exists in every great character; for the purpose of a eulogy is not only to pay tribute to the dead, but also to hold up virtue in such a way as to furnish inspiration to the living.

II. ORATION IN HONOR OF AN EVENT

Orations delivered in honor of an event may be divided into two classes: (1) those which celebrate past events and (2) those which celebrate events of present or future significance.

Commemorative Address. — An oration which celebrates a past event is called a commemorative address. It is usually delivered in connection with an anniversary celebration. It may occur at the opening of a World's Fair. (See *Columbian Oration*, Reading Lesson XI.) Again, it may accompany the unveiling of a monument or statue. (Webster's Bunker Hill Address.) It is sometimes given at a dinner. This is likely to be the case if the foundation of a society or of a newspaper is the object of the celebration.

The commemorative speech is always historical in its nature. College anniversary speeches, for example, tell of the founder, the famous faculty members and graduates,

and the services of the institution to the public. Chauncey M. Depew, at the celebration of the 50th anniversary of the New York *Tribune*, discusses the value of the partisan newspaper as compared with that of the independent press, and then enters into the history of the *Tribune*, its great men, its growth, and its accomplishments.

The highest form of commemorative oration is, however, something more than a narrative. The speaker should dwell upon the significance of the event as well as upon the event itself; that is, he should emphasize the importance and meaning of the event in its effect upon later history. For example, when the Statue of Liberty was presented by the French people to the people of the United States, on the 100th anniversary of American independence, Mr. Depew, who delivered the oration at the unveiling of the monument, took as his theme the importance of the French alliance as a factor in the success of the American Revolution. If the event is one of which the people are proud, the speaker should draw from it some lesson. If it has brought pain to individuals but gain to the group or nation, the best treatment is that which inspires the listeners to a similar noble sacrifice.

Dedicatory Address. — The oration which celebrates an event of present or future significance usually takes the form of a dedicatory address. It may accompany the laying of the corner stone of a public building, or the opening of a park, of an athletic field, or of an exposition.

The nature of the material will vary with the subject and the circumstances. It is not inappropriate to speak of the advantage or beauty of whatever is dedicated; the

devotion of those who have been leaders in the enterprise; or the history of the difficulties that have been overcome. The main theme of the address, however, should direct the minds of the audience to some noble ideal or purpose connected with the object dedicated. To dedicate means to set apart, or consecrate to some good purpose. In every great dedicatory address, therefore, the speaker has made use of his opportunity to point out the significance of the occasion and to express hope and obligation. A few illustrations will perhaps make this point more clear. Judge Shields dwells on the relation between the study of scientific agriculture and the welfare of a nation. Booker T. Washington takes the opportunity to point out to each race in the South its need of the other race. Lincoln, in the greatest of dedicatory addresses, emphasizes the obligation of the living to carry on the work of those who fought and died on the field of Gettysburg.

III. COMMENCEMENT ORATION

Nature. — The oration delivered at commencement exercises may be called a platform oration. It differs from the eulogy and the dedicatory address in that the subject matter does not grow out of the occasion. The orator, chosen for high standing in his class, merely represents his school and shows the best of what its methods are producing in the way of liberal culture.

Choice of a Subject. — The choice of a subject is of considerable importance. The topic should be a live one. It should be either one which is occupying the public mind or one upon which the speaker feels that something needs to be said. At the same time it should not be a

theme that is likely to arouse violent antagonism. Such a theme would be out of harmony with the spirit of the occasion, which is one of rejoicing and congratulation. Furthermore, the subject should be suited to the speaker; that is, it should arouse his interest and grip his feelings, and, if possible, it should be about something with which he has come in contact in real life as well as in books.

Treatment. — Very few suggestions can be made as to treatment, since each subject furnishes its own difficulties and opportunities. A speaker may link an instructive theme to the life of a man who is not too generally known. A theme of this character should be handled in much the same way as a eulogy. Professor Pelsma suggests a plan whereby the speaker presents a problem and offers a solution. As he says, "It is a poor physician who diagnoses a disease without prescribing the remedy." It is certainly true that, if unfortunate conditions are pictured, their presentation should be accompanied by a suggestion of the remedy, else the depressing effect of the speech will mar the joy of the occasion. Again, the treatment should not be too general. There should be an abundance of concrete material. As one authority has expressed it, "Be full of your subject; then force it into a narrow groove."

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have studied the nature and best method of treatment of (1) an oration in honor of a person, (2) an oration in honor of an event, and (3) a commencement oration.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

THE ORATION

Introduction.

- I. Nature of oratory in general.
 - A. Beecher's definition.
 - B. Characteristics.
 - C. Previous training — Ringwalt.
- II. Difference between the oration and the debate.
 - A. Sears.
 - B. Kinds of argument which may be used.
 - C. Appeal to feelings.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Oration in honor of a person.
 - A. Eulogy or memorial tribute.
 1. When so-called.
 - B. More than biographical.
 1. Central thought.
 2. Examples.
 - (a) Chaucer.
 - (b) Webster.
 - (c) Burns.
 3. Merits.
 - C. Should the whole truth be told?
 1. Faithful to the best.
 2. Purpose of a eulogy.
- II. Oration in honor of an event.
 - A. Commemorative address.
 1. Occasions for.
 2. Historical.
 - (a) College anniversaries.
 - (b) *New York Tribune*.
 3. More than a narrative.
 - (a) Significance — Statue of Liberty.
 - (b) Lesson.

II. B. Dedicatory address.

1. Occasions for.
2. Nature of material.
 - (a) Thoughts which may be appropriate.
 - (b) Character of the main theme.
 - (1) Judge Shields.
 - (2) Booker Washington.
 - (3) Lincoln.

III. Commencement oration.

A. Nature.

1. How it differs from the eulogy and dedicatory address.
2. Purpose.

B. Choice of a subject.

1. Alive.
2. In harmony with the occasion.
3. Suited to the speaker.

C. Treatment.

1. Biographical.
2. A problem and its solution.
3. Narrow.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Choose any eulogy which is accessible from the list given in Appendix VIII. Read it and be able to give to the class a summary of its contents.

Exercise III. — Imagine that your student body, your literary society, or some other organization has planned to devote one meeting to the recognition of some great character and that you have been asked to deliver the oration. Look up material in the *Encyclopedia*, *Who's Who*, *Reader's Guide*, and the card catalogue. For suggestions as to subjects consult the "List of Days for Anniversary Celebrations" (Appendix IX). The student will often make a more interesting speech if he chooses a character who is little known and seeks to make him live before his hearers.

Exercise IV. — Bring to class for discussion the theme sentence and word outline from which the oration is to be developed.

Exercise V. — Prepare the oration so that it will occupy not less than four and not more than six minutes.

Exercise VI. — Choose any commemorative address which is accessible from the list given in Appendix X and be able to give to the class a summary of its contents.

Exercise VII. — Review the Gettysburg Address and the dedicatory addresses given in Reading Lesson XI and mark in the margin, with the corresponding figures, at least one illustration of each of the following ideas:

1. Reference to the material beauty or value of that which is dedicated.

2. Appreciation of those who have made the dedication possible.

3. Historical reference to difficulties encountered.

Write in one sentence the main theme of each address.

Which one is at the same time a eulogy, a commemorative oration, and a dedicatory address?

Exercise VIII. — Bring to class for discussion a theme sentence and an outline either for a commemorative oration or for a dedicatory address. Select a subject in which you are interested. Choose a situation from the following list or any other which you may prefer.

Commemorative Oration:

1. On the anniversary of the foundation of a society, church, college, or newspaper.

2. Memorial Day.

3. Admission Day.

4. Fourth of July.

5. Columbus Day.

Dedicatory Address:

1. Laying of the corner stone of a high school, gymnasium, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., library, college building devoted to science, engineering, art, or music.

2. The opening of an exposition or of some state or national building therein.

3. The opening of a public bath, park, or athletic field.

Exercise IX. — Prepare the speech planned in Ex. VIII so that it will occupy not less than four and not more than six minutes.

Exercise X. — Select a subject from the list of "Oration Subjects" (Appendix XI). Bring to class for discussion a theme sentence and a word outline for a commencement oration.

Exercise XI. — Prepare the oration planned in Ex. X, so that it will occupy not less than six minutes and not more than eight minutes.

READING LESSON XII

SPEECHES OF A PRESIDING OFFICER

1. Second Inaugural Address of Abraham Lincoln:

Fellow Countrymen: At this second appearing to take the oath of the Presidential office there is less occasion for an extended address than there was at the first. Then a statement somewhat in detail of a course to be pursued seemed fitting and proper. Now, at the expiration of four years, during which public declarations have been constantly called forth on every point and phase of the great contest which still absorbs the attention and engrosses the energies of the nation, little that is new could be presented. The progress of our arms, upon which all else chiefly depends, is as well known to the public as to myself, and it is, I trust, reasonably satisfactory and encouraging to all. With high hope for the future, no prediction in regard to it is ventured.

On the occasion corresponding to this four years ago all thoughts were anxiously directed to an impending civil war. All dreaded it, all sought to avert it. While the inaugural address was being delivered from this place, devoted altogether to *saving* the Union without war, insurgent agents were in the city seeking to *destroy* it without war — seeking to dissolve the Union and divide effects by negotiation. Both parties deprecated war, but one of them would *make* war rather than let the nation survive, and the other would *accept* war rather than let it perish, and the war came.

One-eighth of the whole population were colored slaves, not distributed generally over the Union, but localized in the southern part of it. These slaves constituted a peculiar and powerful interest. All knew that this interest was somehow the cause of the war. To strengthen, perpetuate, and extend this interest was the object for which the insurgents would rend the Union even by war, while the Government claimed no right to do more than to restrict the territorial enlargement of it. Neither party expected for the war the magnitude or the duration which it has already attained. Neither anticipated that the *cause* of the conflict might cease with or even before the conflict itself should cease. Each looked for an easier triumph, and a result less fundamental and astounding. Both read

the same Bible and pray to the same God, and each invokes His aid against the other. It may seem strange that any men should dare to ask a just God's assistance in wringing their bread from the sweat of other men's faces, but let us judge not, that we be not judged. The prayers of both could not be answered. That of neither has been answered fully. The Almighty has His own purposes. "Woe unto the world because of offenses; for it must needs be that offenses come, but woe to that man by whom the offense cometh." If we shall suppose that American slavery is one of those offenses which, in the providence of God, must needs come, but which, having continued through His appointed time, He now wills to remove, and that He gives to both North and South this terrible war as the woe due to those by whom the offense came, shall we discern therein any departure from those divine attributes which the believers in a living God always ascribe to Him? Fondly do we hope, fervently do we pray, that this mighty scourge of war may speedily pass away. Yet, if God wills that it continue until all the wealth piled by the bondsman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid by another drawn with the sword, as was said three thousand years ago, so still it must be said "the judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether."

With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphan, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations. [March 4, 1865.]

2. Woodrow Wilson's Inaugural Address:

There has been a change of government. It began two years ago, when the House of Representatives became Democratic by a decisive majority. It has now been completed. The Senate about to assemble will also be Democratic. The offices of President and Vice-President have been put into the hands of Democrats. What does the change mean? That is the question that is uppermost in our minds to-day. That is the question I am going to try to answer in order, if I may, to interpret the occasion.

It means much more than the mere success of a party. The success of a party means little except when the nation is using that party for a large and definite purpose. No one can mistake the purpose for which the nation now seeks to use the Democratic party. It seeks to use it to interpret a change in its own plans and point of view. Some old things with which we had grown familiar, and which had begun to creep into the very habit of our thought and of our lives, have altered their aspect as we have latterly looked critically upon them, with fresh, awakened eyes; have dropped their disguises and shown themselves alien and sinister. Some new things, as we look frankly upon them, willing to comprehend their real character, have come to assume the aspect of things long believed in and familiar, stuff of our own convictions. We have been refreshed by a new insight into our own life.

We see that in many things life is very great. It is incomparably great in its material aspects, in its body of wealth, in the diversity and sweep of its energy, in the industries which have been conceived and built up by the genius of individual men and the limitless enterprise of groups of men. It is great, also, very great, in its moral force. Nowhere else in the world have noble men and women exhibited in more striking forms the beauty and the energy of sympathy and helpfulness and counsel in their efforts to rectify wrong, alleviate suffering, and set the weak in the way of strength and hope. We have built up, moreover, a great system of government, which has stood through a long age in many respects a model for those who seek to set liberty upon foundations that will endure against fortuitous change, against storm and accident. Our life contains every great thing and contains it in rich abundance.

But the evil has come with the good, and much fine gold has been corroded. With riches has come inexcusable waste. We have squandered a great part of what we might have used, and have not stopped to conserve the exceeding bounty of nature, without which our genius for enterprise would have been worthless and impotent, scorning to be careful, shamefully prodigal as well as admirably efficient. We have been proud of our industrial achievements, but we have not hitherto stopped thoughtfully enough to count the human cost, the cost of lives snuffed out, of energies overtaxed and broken, the fearful physical and spiritual cost to the men and women and

children upon whom the dead weight and burden of it all has fallen pitilessly the years through. The groans and agony of it all had not yet reached our ears, the solemn, moving undertone of our life, coming up out of the mines and factories and out of every home where the struggle had its intimate and familiar seat. With the great government went many deep secret things which we too long delayed to look into and scrutinize with candid, fearless eyes. The great government we loved has too often been made use of for private and selfish purposes, and those who used it had forgotten the people.

At last a vision has been vouchsafed us of our life as a whole. We see the bad with the good, the debased and decadent with the sound and vital. With this vision we approach new affairs. Our duty is to cleanse, to reconsider, to restore, to correct the evil without impairing the good, to purify and harmonize every process of our common life without weakening or sentimentalizing it. There has been something crude and heartless and unfeeling in our haste to succeed and be great. Our thought has been "Let every man look out for himself, let every generation look out for itself," while we reared giant machinery which made it impossible that any but those who stood at the levers of control should have a chance to look out for themselves. We had not forgotten our morals. We remembered well enough that we had set up a policy which was meant to serve the humblest as well as the most powerful, with an eye single to the standards of justice and fair play, and remembered it with pride. But we were very heedless and in a hurry to be great.

We have come now to the sober second thought. The scales of heedlessness have fallen from our eyes. We have made up our minds to square every process of our national life again with the standards we so proudly set up at the beginning and have always carried at our hearts. Our work is a work of restoration.

We have itemized with some degree of particularity the things that ought to be altered, and here are some of the chief items: A tariff which cuts us off from our proper part in the commerce of the world violates the just principles of taxation and makes the government a facile instrument in the hands of private interests; a banking and currency system based upon the necessity of the government to sell its bonds 50 years ago and perfectly adapted to concentrating cash and restricting credits; an industrial system which, take

it on all sides, financial as well as administrative, holds capital in leading strings, restricts the liberties and limits the opportunities of labor, and exploits without renewing or conserving the natural resources of the country; a body of agricultural activities never yet given the efficiency of great business undertakings or served as it should be through the instrumentality of science taken directly to the farm, or afforded the facilities of credit best suited to its practical needs; watercourses undeveloped, waste places unreclaimed, forests untended, fast disappearing, without plan or prospect of renewal, unregarded waste heaps at every mine. We have studied as perhaps no other nation has the most effective means of production, but we have not studied cost or economy as we should, either as organizers of industry, as statesmen, or as individuals.

Nor have we studied and perfected the means by which government may be put at the service of humanity in safeguarding the health of the nation, the health of its men and its women and its children, as well as their rights in the struggle for existence. This is no sentimental duty. The firm basis of government is justice, not pity. These are matters of justice. There can be no equality of opportunity, the first essential of justice in the body politic, if men and women and children be not shielded in their lives, their very vitality, from the consequences of great industrial and social processes which they cannot alter, control, or singly cope with. Society must see to it that it does not itself crush or weaken its own constituent parts. The first duty of law is to keep sound the society it serves. Sanitary laws, pure-food laws, and laws determining conditions of labor which individuals are powerless to determine for themselves are intimate parts of the very business of justice and legal efficiency.

These are some of the things we ought to do, and not leave the others undone, the old-fashioned, never-to-be-neglected, fundamental safeguarding of property and of individual right. This is the high enterprise of the new day: to lift everything that concerns our life as a nation to the light that shines from the hearthfire of every man's conscience and vision of the right. It is inconceivable that we should do it in ignorance of the facts as they are or in blind haste. We shall restore, not destroy. We shall deal with our economic system as it is and as it may be modified, not as it might be if we had a clean

sheet of paper to write upon; and step by step we shall make it what it should be, in the spirit of those who question their own wisdom and seek counsel and knowledge, not shallow self-satisfaction or the excitement of excursions whither they cannot tell. Justice, and only justice, shall be our motto.

And yet it will be no cool process of mere science. The nation has been deeply stirred, stirred by a solemn passion, stirred by the knowledge of wrong, of ideals lost, of government too often debauched and made an instrument of evil. The feelings with which we face this new age of right and opportunity sweep across our heart-strings like some air out of God's own presence, where justice and mercy are reconciled and the judge and the brother are one. We know our task to be no mere task of politics, but a task which shall search us through and through, whether we be able to understand our time and the need of our people, whether we be indeed their spokesmen and interpreters, whether we have the pure heart to comprehend and the rectified will to choose our high course of action.

This is not a day of triumph; it is a day of dedication. Here muster, not the forces of party, but the forces of humanity. Men's hearts wait upon us; men's lives hang in the balance; men's hopes call upon us to say what we will do. Who shall live up to the great trust? Who dares fail to try? I summon all honest men, all patriotic, all forward-looking men, to my side. God helping me, I will not fail them, if they will but counsel and sustain me.

3. Response of Thomas Forsyth Hunt, Dean of the College of Agriculture and Director of the Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of California, upon formal induction into office. Taken from the *University Chronicle*, Vol. 15, p. 125:

In accepting the responsibility of Dean of the College of Agriculture and Director of the Agricultural Experiment Station, it must be recognized that I represent only one of the agencies by which the University of California seeks to develop the commonwealth. The office into which I have just been formally inducted typifies the University's relation to the public welfare. The organization thus represented looks back over a generation of steady and successful development under the guidance of but two directors, both of whom *have the unique distinction of remaining as honored members of the*

faculty. The institution will honor itself during this day's exercises by remembering them with loving kindness.

With every generation of men, new problems arise. Through the operation of this law, the College of Agriculture finds itself in just that attitude. Some of these problems are the most important as well as the most fundamental with which the Anglo-Saxon race has grappled during the past forty centuries. The faculty of the College of Agriculture suffers no illusions concerning its own limitations and makes no promises beyond pledging its best endeavors.

Upon behalf of himself and his associates the Dean and Director appeals to all agencies, public and private, for assistance and guidance. He asks the sympathy and patience of the Governor of the State, and the President of the University, the Board of Regents, faculty, and the citizens of California, while, following the sane, safe, and sensible policies of his predecessors, he unobtrusively and without undue publicity endeavors to organize the best and most efficient faculty of agriculture that has ever been known.

4. Portion of an address of welcome, by Arthur Twining Hadley, on the occasion of the Bicentennial Celebration of Yale University, 1901:

"Of all the pleasures and the duties which a birthday brings with it, the most welcome duty and the most exalted pleasure is found in the opportunity which it affords for seeing, united under one roof, the fellow members of a family who are often far separated. On this two-hundredth birthday of Yale University, it is our chief pride to have with us the representatives of that brotherhood of learning which knows no bounds of time or place, of profession or creed."

His elaboration of his theme may be summarized as follows:

a. This brotherhood of learning knows no bounds of age, for we have with us the youngest student and the oldest alumnus — even the dead are with us in spirit.

b. It knows no bounds of place, for we have visitors from St. Petersburg, Japan, and Australasia.

c. It knows no bounds of profession, for universities no longer confine themselves to an interest in theology, law, and science, but bring all callings within the scope of university life.

d. It knows no bounds of creed, for we have a common religion which teaches us broad lessons of reverence, tolerance, and earnestness, and unites us in a common purpose.

5. Address of Welcome to the National Education Association, delivered by John L. Bates, Governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, in Boston, 1903:

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen: If I had the voice of Niagara, and of all its waters, I could not in the three minutes assigned to me express the welcome of Massachusetts.

We are glad to see you within our borders. We hope you will receive pleasure from this coming together, and we hope as the result of your deliberations there will be profit for all mankind.

I welcome you as a phalanx that carries lanterns to bring light into dark places, as an army that carries swords to cut down superstition, and spears to defeat the enemies of the American republic.

I welcome you as men and women engaged in one great organization for the uplifting of humanity. I welcome you as men and women engaged in a calling that takes hold of the future, and thereby makes for immortality. I welcome you to the commonwealth of Massachusetts — to the land of the Pilgrims, who, forgetful of their poverty, built colleges for the expansion of the mind. I welcome you to the shores of the Puritans, who, forgetful of the palaces of earth, built more stately mansions for the soul.

I welcome you to the state that has set in the place of honor at the right of the entrance of its capitol the bronze statue of Horace Mann, the educator.

Thrice welcome to the old Bay State.¹

6. Portion of an Address of Welcome by Inspector James L. Hughes before the National Education Association at Toronto, Canada, 1891:

"Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen, Members of the National Education Association of the United States: On behalf of the Local Executive Committee of Toronto, I have the honor to bid you welcome to-day to our city. It gives us a great deal of pleasure to welcome you here. We receive you as strangers, but we hope to make

¹ *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses* of the 42d Annual Meeting, 1903, p. 41.

you friends before you leave us. We welcome you to-day as citizens of a great and friendly nation with which we always hope to live at peace. We believe that your coming here and our going to your land as teachers, fellow workers in the same great cause, will tend to perpetuate all that which is for the best interests of the two countries, and to establish common education, on a broad, sound, and solid basis which can never be disturbed. We welcome you as teachers and fellow workers, coming here to take part in the discussion of some of the most important questions relating to your work and ours, and we trust that your coming and that your discussion of matters which we may listen to may do much to give us a better, grander, truer idea of our work and of yours."

7. Portion of the response to Addresses of Welcome by Josiah H. Shinn, President of the Southern Education Association:

"*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen, Members of the Welcoming Committee of Canada:* It was not my proud pleasure to listen to the splendid addresses made by your representatives, but I need no such addresses to know the spirit of welcome that lies in your heart. One hundred and ninety teachers over here at this little port of yours were stopped by customs officers, and three hundred and eighty grip-sacks violently laid hold of, in the name of the law, and not even a single one was opened. The majesty of the British law failed before the matchless power of the school teachers of the South when an English customs man opened his heart, cast aside the mandate of the laws, and led us to your doors. I know from all this that we are welcome. I knew when we reached your little station called Stratford, where we found about four hundred baskets, and a lot of bread and butter and no waiters to hand out that which is pleasant and nice to two hundred teachers and we were given the liberty of walking up to the counter and helping ourselves, I knew we were welcome. When we were away back in our beloved "Southland" we knew that Canadians had taken the word of welcome, and had written it high above all others, except virtue, love, and truth. We knew that you, in common with us, had inherited a hospitality from the mother country. We thank you most heartily for this royal reception." ¹

¹ National Education Association. *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1891, pp. 57 and 79.

CHAPTER XXIV

SPEECHES OF A PRESIDING OFFICER

Introduction. — In this day of numerous organizations, almost anyone may be asked to serve as presiding officer. A high-school student may be chosen to preside over his student body or his alumni association, a literary, social, or dramatic club, or a religious organization such as a Y. M. C. A. or a Christian Endeavor society. An adult may be elected to preside over a political club, a lodge, or a woman's club.

The speeches which a president should make need not be long, but they should be felicitous, that is, tactful, happy, and appropriate. If the presiding officer knows what to say upon every occasion, he is like the accomplished hostess who puts her guests at ease under all circumstances.

In this chapter we shall discuss the subject matter which would be appropriate (1) for speeches delivered upon taking and leaving office, (2) for a speech introducing a speaker, and (3) for an address of welcome to a convention.

I. ENTERING UPON AND TAKING LEAVE OF OFFICE

Inaugural Address. — If the office to be filled is of considerable importance, the opening address is called an inaugural. Whether the position be prominent or insignificant, however, the same principles apply to the choice of suitable material for the opening address.

The introduction may contain an expression of gratitude for the honor which has been conferred upon the speaker, a modest estimate of his own ability, and a complimentary reference to the work of previous officers or to the greatness of the organization. Let us see how this may be done. Gladstone, after having been chosen Lord Rector of the University of Glasgow, or presiding member of its court, made an address before an audience more than half of whom were students. He first spoke of the high estimate which he placed upon the office and expressed his sense of inability to fill it acceptably, due to the fact of his advancing years. He then spoke in complimentary terms of the diligence and ability of the faculty and the earnestness of the students, congratulating Scotland as a nation upon the rapid growth of her universities.

Chauncey M. Depew was for seven years president of the Union League Club of New York. In his first inaugural address, in addition to thanks, compliments, and pleasantries, he spoke of the brilliant past of the League. He referred to its foundation as an organization to succor the wounded in the Civil War; he told how it had equipped the first negro regiment; and finally, he spoke of its later work in overcoming political rings and combinations.

The body of the inaugural address will vary with the nature of the organization. If the organization has been formed mainly for self-improvement, the body of the speech may deal with some topic of interest to the members. For example, Gladstone's address before the students of Glasgow was entitled, "Modern Training for Life." He gave statistics which showed the purposes of

the students as evidenced by the professions which they expected to follow, and discussed the importance of each occupation in the work of the world. In this way he pointed out the service and influence of the university. If the organization has been formed to carry out some definite work, it is the privilege of the incoming president to suggest the policy to be pursued during his term of office. Mr. Depew, for instance, in his first inaugural, urged that the club be made less a political and more of a social organization. In his second inaugural, he advocated the encouragement of an American school of art and the purchase by the Club of a certain number of American pictures each year.

The conclusion of an opening address may express confidence in the support and coöperation of the members.

Farewell. — Under ordinary circumstances, a farewell speech at the close of one's term of office is unnecessary. It may be, however, that the officer is to leave the locality or that he has seen long service. In either of these cases his associates may wish to express their appreciation in the form of a dinner or a gift. Such an occasion would call for appropriate remarks by the outgoing officer. He cannot go far astray if he expresses modesty in regard to his own accomplishments, gratitude for the support and appreciation of his friends, and a deep interest in the future welfare of the organization and its members.

II. INTRODUCING A SPEAKER

An introductory speech has two purposes: (1) It should aim to inspire the audience with confidence in the speaker. The presiding officer is always well known to the audience, while frequently the speaker is not. Reference to the

speaker's past achievements or his particular qualifications for discussing the subject chosen is therefore always in place. (2) The introductory speech should seek to arouse the interest of the audience in the subject of the discourse. This should be its aim if the subject is an unpopular one. The presiding officer should lend his influence to the speaker in order to win for him at the start a serious and respectful consideration. This purpose need not be present if the speaker to be introduced is famous and can carry his audience with him, whatever may be his subject.

More than all, an introductory speech must be brief, for the audience has come to hear the speaker and not the presiding officer.

III. ADDRESS OF WELCOME TO A CONVENTION

When a convention meets in a city, the address of welcome may be made by the mayor of the city, the president of the local organization, the president of the chamber of commerce, or any other prominent citizen.

The address of welcome has two chief purposes: (1) It aims to express the pleasure which the citizens feel because of the presence of their visitors. While it is correct form to place the resources of the city at the disposal of the guests, it is necessary to avoid any appearance of boastfulness. (2) The address of welcome should seek to create a sense of unity and good-fellowship by presenting the common purposes and interests which have drawn the members of the audience together. If the address is made by one who is not a member, this may be done by complimentary reference to the importance and value of the work which is being accomplished by the organization. If the address is made by a member, it may be done by

reference to the growth of the organization, some of the important problems which are to engage the attention of the delegates, and the mutual benefit which will be derived from an exchange of ideas.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have received some suggestions as to what it is appropriate to say (1) in an inaugural and in a farewell speech, (2) in a speech of introduction, and (3) in an address of welcome to a convention.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

SPEECHES OF A PRESIDING OFFICER

Introduction.

- I. Result of numerous organizations.
- II. Value of knowing what to say.
- III. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. Entering upon and taking leave of office.
 - A. Inaugural address. — Principles.
 1. Content of the introduction.
 - (a) Items.
 - (b) Examples.
 - (1) Gladstone.
 - (2) Depew.
 2. Content of the body.
 - (a) Varies with purpose.
 - (b) Topic of interest.
 - (1) Gladstone.
 - (c) Suggestion as to policy.
 - (1) Depew.
 3. Content of conclusion.
 - B. Farewell.
 1. Circumstances.
 2. Content.
- II. Introducing a speaker.

- II. A. Purposes.
 - 1. Speaker.
 - 2. Subject.
- B. Brief.
- III. Address of welcome to a convention.
 - A. By whom made.
 - B. Purposes.
 - 1. Pleasure.
 - (a) Boastfulness.
 - 2. Create unity.
 - (a) If made by a non-member.
 - (b) If made by a member.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Review the three inaugural addresses in Reading Lesson XII and answer the following questions:

1. Why does Mr. Lincoln not go into detail as to the course of action to be pursued during the next four years?
2. In what sentence does he place the blame for the war on both North and South?
3. It is said that Lincoln's simple yet dignified and even elegant style of expression may be attributed partly to the fact that his early reading was confined to Shakespeare and the Bible. What in this address shows his knowledge of the latter?
4. What seems to be the main purpose of his historical review of the situation?
5. Select the sentences from each address in which the speaker asks for the coöperation of his fellows.
6. Does President Wilson compliment or condemn his predecessors?
7. How does he seek to excuse the mistakes of the past?
8. Make a list of the things which he thinks need to be done.
9. He suggests that they be done in what spirit?
10. Find in each address expressions which indicate that the speaker places a modest estimate upon his own abilities.
11. Find in the third an appreciative reference to his predecessors.

Exercise III. — Assume that you have been elected to the presidency of your student body, alumni association, religious organization, language, literary, scientific, dramatic, political, or woman's club. Prepare a three-minute speech which would be appropriate for the first meeting after your election. At the conclusion of your own inaugural, make a one-minute speech introducing a speaker to the members of your society. Do not use a fictitious name. Your speech will be much more interesting if you choose a real person.

Exercise IV. — Review Nos. 4 to 7 of Reading Lesson XII and answer the following questions:

1. In what way is President Hadley's address particularly appropriate to the occasion?
2. In what ways does Governor Bates compliment his guests?
3. In what ways does he show pride in his state?
4. How does his reference to the history of Massachusetts help to create a sense of unity?
5. Mr. Hughes of Toronto was speaking to members of his own profession. What ideas did he express which would tend to promote good-fellowship and cause those present to realize the dignity and value of the convention?

Exercise V. — Choose one from among the following situations and prepare an appropriate address of welcome. Let it occupy from three to four minutes. Select an organization about whose history and purposes you either have or can get information:

1. As president of a high school or normal school student body, give an address of welcome before the alumni association, which is to hold its meetings in your building.
2. As president of a local organization (lodge, woman's club, fraternity, chamber of commerce, labor union, etc.) welcome a convention of delegates of that organization from other cities.
3. Welcome one of the above-mentioned organizations, not as a member, but as the mayor or some other prominent citizen of the city.

READING LESSON XIII

SPEECHES FOR SOCIAL OCCASIONS

1. From a speech by Chauncey M. Depew at a dinner given to fifty vagrants on Christmas eve, 1896:

My Friends: It is Christmas eve, and I hope we have all begun the hours that lead to Christmas in the proper way — that is, by filling ourselves as full as we can of the good things of this world.

I have presided at many dinners and attended many more — perhaps more than any other man in New York — but certainly never did I preside over or attend a dinner from which I have derived more real pleasure than from this dinner here to-night. . . .

I have read of the great dinners they had in Rome, when a man would expend his entire fortune, great as those fortunes were, to entertain an emperor. Only one of the great historical dinners ever interested me — the one told of in the New Testament, where the host, his guests having failed to answer or to send excuses, found his tables unoccupied. Then it was that he told the people of his household to go out into the highways and byways and gather in all they might find. I would like to have been at that dinner. I have pictured it often in my mind. Had the guests who had been invited attended, some of them would have criticized the wines of the host, saying they had better in their own cellars; others would have criticized the food and declared that their own cooks could have prepared better dishes. Then, as he departed, each would shake the hand of the host hypocritically and bid him good-night with the false statement that he had never had a better time or a better dinner in his life. In my mind's eye, I can see some of the guests who attended the feast. One was, perhaps, the student who, in striving after distinction in a profession, had neglected to provide for his material wants and was in distress. Another was, perhaps, the skilled mechanic out of a job, wanting only the opportunity to work but failing to find it. I can picture the lawyer without clients and the playwright discouraged because he could not sell his play. I can see there, too, the poet or the author whom publishers had not recognized, but who was destined to become a great man in the literature of the future. I can see there,

too, the professional tramp who would do everything but work, absolutely refusing to do that. The professional tramp, more completely than any other type of man on earth, meets the biblical description of the lily in the field. He toils not, neither does he spin, yet Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed like one of these.

We meet here this Christmas eve and the occasion is one that suggests a few things to me — to all of us. No matter how fortunate or unfortunate we may be, Christmas eve should be an hour of rejoicing. Whether we are in luck or whether we are not in luck, we cannot forget that this hour is the one that led to the coming of Christ to this earth. He came as the great leveler. It was his mission to inculcate doctrines that would wipe out despotism and injustice. . . . If a man has the element of hope in his heart he can and will find a place from which he can start afresh in the journey of his life, no matter how dark his past has been. You may say that it is easy for a man like me to make such a statement; but, my friends, it has been my privilege during the last thirty years to come into contact with men who have encountered the most discouraging conditions of life. I have seen men who were in magnificent circumstances go to the gutter through rum. I have seen them conquer the appetite, and, having conquered it, gain new courage. I have seen them, starting from that new landing place, work up and up again until they reached their proper sphere.

I know what it is to be in hard luck myself. I belong to a family that has the trait of always worrying about things that don't happen. My father died of worrying and my grandfather died of worrying, and I almost made up my mind that I would die of worry. For the first thirty years of my life I worried enough to have shuffled off this mortal coil and climbed the Golden Stairs. But I had good lungs, good heart, good stomach, and good muscles, and somehow I couldn't die. Then I had a hard blow. I lost every dollar I had in the world. My father was one of those men who believed that a boy should be thrown out into the world and made to hustle for himself if he was ever going to amount to anything. I went to him with my troubles. All he did was to cry. I did not want tears. I wanted greenbacks. I wanted help, not sympathy. I thought that my jig was up for sure and for a time was very much down in the heart, but one day, thank God, I came to realize that this was a bright and beautiful world. . . .

I declared that I should go to work, stop worrying, cultivate cheerfulness and try to be merry. The result of that philosophy is that for twenty years I have been trying to get fun out of everything. If it is work, I get fun out of that. If I am at sea during a hard blow and all the other passengers are so sick that they wish they were dead, I try to get fun out of that too. I am always trying to get a chance to laugh. The result is that I have reversed the hereditary conditions that nature put in me, but with which God never intended that a man should be afflicted. I cultivated hope until I became an optimist. . . .

I believe the trouble with most of us is that we get in a rut. We get in the procession and we cannot get out of it. We want something a little better than the chance that is given to us at the time. We are not willing enough to take the chance presented to us. Up in Peekskill, a town that originates pretty nearly all the things that are worth thinking about in this world and in which I had my origin, they had a habit of always following a hearse at a funeral. A Peekskiller who had come down to New York and died was to be "planted," as Peekskillers say. Some of his New York friends went up to the funeral. They took carriages and got into the procession to follow the hearse. After a while they noticed that they were riding over very rough ground and that the carriage was swaying from side to side in such a manner as to threaten to spill them out. One of the New York dudes stuck his head out of the carriage window and shouted to the driver, "Hi, there! What the deuce are you trying to do? Do you want to break our necks? Where are you taking us to, anyway?" The old Peekskill driver leaned over and answered "Well, I'll tell you, gents, the horses with the hearse started to run away ten minutes ago and they're running yet, and you know, up here in Peekskill, it's the rule for the mourners to follow the hearse, and I ain't going to break it." Now, it's not a good rule to follow the hearse. If you've been doing it, stop. When a man finds himself in the wrong procession, the best thing for him to do is to get out. When the chance comes, it may not be in a very inviting landing place, but if it gives him an opportunity and if he has the courage and pluck and sobriety to take advantage of it and does so, he is on the way to make all his Christmases merry Christmases. . . .

I wish you all a Merry Christmas tomorrow, and an opportunity

to work and to prosper during the coming year. I hope from the bottom of my heart that you will all start out to-night with new hope. . . . I trust that a year from to-night you will all be able to say that 1897 was a year of success for you and that you will be sitting as hosts at Christmas tables where you can give words of comfort and encouragement to those whom the vicissitudes of life may place in the same positions in which you are now.¹

2. Extract from a speech given by Mr. James Bryce, Ambassador from England to the United States, at a dinner of the Harvard Alumni. After thanking the presiding officer and the University for the cordial reception which has been tendered to him, he continues:

I take it as an expression of your warm feeling towards that country from which so many of the ancestors of men of Massachusetts came, and which always is and always will be proud of having laid the foundations of the two famous commonwealths of Massachusetts and Virginia. I noted an interesting trace of the way in which the Old World lives in the New in the fact that the air to which you have just sung the song of "Fair Harvard" was an air composed by some unknown Celtic minstrel centuries ago in Ireland, and in the fact that the song with which you are going to close our gathering to-day is the song which all over the English-speaking world is used at moments of parting, and which comes from the pen of my countryman, Robert Burns. It is not only in great things but also in little things like these that we see how deep the unity of our feelings goes.

You asked me just now, Mr. President, to say what those who are going across to The Hague will find in England. I can tell you very easily. It was brought to my mind by some words which fell from the lips of the president of this University. You will find there ancient universities weltering in an abyss of poverty. Think of my feelings, gentlemen, when the president of Harvard University said that within the last six years Harvard University had received gifts from private benefactors to the amount of eight millions. Think of the fact that the class of 1882 is giving and other classes hereafter are expected, with what I have no doubt is a prescience born of long observation, to give one hundred thousand dollars, or as much more

¹ Chauncey M. Depew. *Orations, Addresses, and Speeches*, II, p. 319.

as may befit the growing wealth of the country. Add these endowments together, and then think of how much richer Harvard becomes every year; and think of the fact that in England we can hardly scrape together even the money that is necessary to enable us to set up proper scientific apparatus for university teaching and research and adequately support our world-famous libraries. The old moralists and preachers — indeed, many of the poets also were fond of dilating upon the blessings of poverty and the dangers of wealth. The only fear I can have for the future of Harvard arises from the reflex action of those millions. How will you ever spend the wealth that is descending in a golden torrent upon you? We, I suppose, ought to have the virtues which poverty is supposed to foster. There is an anecdote of a Scotch lady who was dragged in a carriage by runaway horses; the bottom fell out of the carriage, and she suffered severely for two miles before the horses could be pulled up; but one of her friends who came to condole with her, being of a very pious spirit, said, "After all, my dear, it must have been a blessed experience." And we, I suppose, when we think of the blessings which moralists see in the hardship of the poor, and of the many temptations incident to wealth, ought to feel glad that those temptations are not thrown in our way. You probably remember the anecdote of the man who was seen lying on the pavement of a street in London by commiserating spectators, one of whom, trying to raise his head, observed, "Poor fellow, he must be very ill," upon which a cabman standing by said, "I only wish, sir, I had half his complaint." We would be willing, gentlemen, to have half the complaint with which Harvard is threatened by its increasing opulence.

Since, however, poverty is our lot, we try to live upon our traditions. They are a tonic sort of food, but they are not nutritious. However, they are all we have. They are ancient and glorious traditions; yet perhaps they are not relatively more ancient than yours, because your traditions began within a very few years of the settlement of this continent, when a man of whom little is known except that he was a man of university training and high ideals gave a small fund for the foundation of a college here which has become the cradle of the whole university system of America. And you have built up long and glorious traditions. When I look around at the walls of this room; when I think of the famous men who have adorned

Harvard; when I think not only of those famous men, but of the thousands of noble lives, of those who died in the Civil War, and of those who have lived lives devoted to their country before and since the war, men who were inspired by the traditions of Harvard, I think how great a power a university has of forming the spirit of a people. Both you and we have our traditions, and we prize them. You need your traditions to save you from your wealth; we need our traditions to support us in our poverty.

3. Speech of Chauncey M. Depew, introducing Sir Edwin Arnold, New York, October 8, 1891:

Ladies and Gentlemen: It is a great pleasure for many of us to embrace this opportunity to enter the peaceful domain of poetry and philosophy so soon after yesterday's election. The event which calls us together, so unique and of such international significance, could happen between the people of no other nations than those of the United States and Great Britain. With all others is the barrier of race and the insuperable obstacle of language. We are happy to greet so distinguished a representative of our kin across the sea and so eminent a master of our common mother tongue. An English audience applauding James Russell Lowell and those in America cheering Sir Edwin Arnold present the unity in essentials of these great empires and the possibilities before English-speaking peoples. Our language is conquering the earth. It is destined to be for the East more than Buddha the "Light of Asia" and to diffuse around the globe the "Light of the World."

Commercial rivalries and diplomatic frictions promote the health of nations. Contending for markets stirs the energies and inspires the inventive genius of both America and England. Political necessities, or the bumptiousness of the hour on one side or the other will always provide a Bering Sea, or a Fisheries, or a Canadian problem for a tournament of the pen between Washington and Westminster, but the brotherhood of letters will prevent these disputes ever ending in the bloody arbitrament of arms.

When Lowell died this summer, the tributes of the English press were so generous and discriminating, they paid such glowing eulogy to his genius, and gave such full and graceful recognition to the merit and originality of American literature, that they strengthened the

ties between the Old country and the New, and emphasized the universal amity of the guild of letters.

The authors have at last succeeded in convincing the politicians that they know better than Congressmen their own mission and interests, and a year unusually rich in conspicuous legislation will count as one of its most beneficent measures, again enforcing the maxim that peace has her victories as well as war, the International Copyright Law.

We have hospitably received all the lecturers from the other side who had or thought they had ideas to plant in our virgin soil, but our welcome has been given to few. We have hailed always with delight the advent of the glorious thinkers whose works are the features and the factors of the literature of our time. Herbert Spencer and Canon Kingsley and Archdeacon Farrar spoke to loyal subjects and enthusiastic admirers who knew intimately the letter and spirit of their teachings and rejoiced to meet the teacher. But we have loved more to greet the creative minds who came to interpret books which were the favorites of our libraries, and to illustrate characters which had been adopted as members of our families. To hear Thackeray dissect the Georges, and to have Dickens personally introduce us to the dear old friends Captain Cuttle, Micawber, the Marchioness, and others whom we had idealized and loved, formed eras in our lives. Only those who listened to the blind bard as he sang his immortal epic ever fully understood the *Iliad*. I heard the presiding officer introduce Matthew Arnold, when he was here, as the author of the *Light of Asia*. The busy man of affairs who had not differentiated the Arnolds, never knew why his compliment was not appreciated, but he well understood that there was one priceless contribution to the thought of the age which had made immortal the name of Arnold. We welcome Sir Edwin because he is an American by birth on his wife's side. His career is peculiarly Western. Most of our famous men have won their way through college and into the professions by teaching the district school or rural academy and our guest began as a teacher. He brings a lesson we cannot learn too soon, the division of labor. While editor-in-chief of the journal enjoying the largest circulation in Great Britain, he found time for the composition of those exquisite and profound works which are his fame and part of the glory of our period. Sir Edwin Arnold comes to us as Laboulaye

might have come, as John Bright might have come, to receive the expressions of our gratitude for writing daily to his great constituency, on the side of our national life and unity when both were in peril. We had then in England few friends in power or in the press, but he was one of the truest and most useful. This journalist, poet, philosopher, and friend is with us tonight, and I have the pleasure of introducing to you Sir Edwin Arnold.¹

4. Address by Chauncey M. Depew on presenting the loving cup to Admiral Dewey, January 9, 1900:

Admiral Dewey: Your countrymen are ever emulating each other in the conception and execution of something which will show their affection for and their gratitude to you. You were presented with a sword by an admiring and grateful country, with loving cups by municipalities and with medals by states; but all of these acts were essentially ceremonial in form.

What we do to-day is without ceremony or official character. It is simply the expression of seventy thousands of men, women, and children of our country in a simple way of their affection, respect for, and their pride in Admiral Dewey.

One of the significant things of our time is the influence of the newspaper, the power of the journal. The triumphs of Arctic exploration, scientific advancement, and beneficent reforms originate very often in the brains of the people who conduct these great powers of modern thought and who give expression to the general idea. It seems as if the myriad fingers by which the press reaches out and touches every form of opinion and feeling enables it also to concentrate in a happy way what all desire and give to it definite and material form. This had been done by the *New York Journal*, which suggested this cup for you, Admiral.

The artist who designed it has put in permanent and beautiful form the love of seventy thousands who contributed their ten cent pieces for the purpose of making this exquisite memorial.

If you were a politician, sir, and had aspiration for the Presidency, I fear this cup would be a serious bar to your advancement, because one of the critical, crucial dangers of the time, if we are to believe many newspapers and orators, is the contraction of the cur-

¹ Chauncey M. Depew. *Orations, Addresses, and Speeches*, III, p. 200.

rency, and here are, sir, actually seventy thousand dimes taken out of the circulating medium of the country.

But there is another significance in this gift. . . . Ever since the pocket came into use and fashion there has always been a pocket piece. This is a charm, carried for the purpose of warding off rheumatism and the devil, . . . and of promoting good fortune.

In this cup are melted up the dimes of a great many elderly people who had rounded out their successful lives and who thought that they would give to you their pocket pieces in the hope that they would do for you what they had done for themselves, that you would be free from what they had escaped, and that, besides, they would transfer to you good luck for the rest of your life. . . .

As you look at this cup during the years to come, you will know that the donors from every state, city, town, and hamlet of your country will have an interest in your home. From thousands of homes, in every prayer, morning and evening, there will be an aspiration for long life, health, and happiness for Admiral Dewey.

5. Portion of a response by William Ewart Gladstone, accepting a chair from the Liberals of the Borough of Greenwich:

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen: I am sure you will think I shall best discharge my duty if upon this occasion I confine myself to the briefest expression of thanks for this last and newest favor which the constituency of Greenwich has conferred upon me. The former favors have not been, and cannot be, forgotten; and, although our political connection as constituency and representative has been dissolved, yet you may rely upon it that my interest in your welfare, which was enhanced by that connection, can never disappear. I thank you greatly for this new mark of your enduring kindness. I accept it with peculiar joy and pleasure on this auspicious day, in the presence of Lord Granville, Lord Hartington, and all those colleagues to whose powerful coöperation it is that I owe my being able to appear before you with the conviction that I have not disgraced the functions with which, in common with them, I am charged.

6. Speech of Harry Johnson Fisher, presenting the Cheney-Ives Gateway to Yale University on behalf of the Class of 1896:

President Hadley and Yale Men: I am here as a representative

of the class of ninety-six, to present to you this gate. In its stone and iron it typifies the rugged manliness of those to whose lasting memory it has been erected. That is our wish. To you who are now gathered beneath these elms, and to those Yale men who shall follow after us, we wish this memorial to stand first of all for the manhood and courage of Yale. In the evening shadows the softer lights may steal forth and infold it, but through the daylight hours of toil and accomplishment let the sun shine down upon it, and bring out each line of strength, that every Yale man may be imbued with that dauntless spirit which inspired these two sons of Yale in their lives and in their deaths.

We do not wish you merely to stand before this memorial and gaze upon it as a monument. We want every one of you, whether graduate at commencement time or undergraduate in term time, to come to it and to sit upon its benches, just as we of ninety-six shall come to sit during the advancing years, and, in the coming, keep always alive in our hearts the spirit of these two who did their work and held their peace, and had no fear to die. That is the lesson these two careers are singularly fitted to teach us. To the one came the keenest disappointment of staying behind, and after that the toil, the drudgery, and the sickness, — all bravely borne. To the other it was given to meet death with that steadfast courage which alone avails to men who die in the long quiet after the battle. It is no new service these two have given to Yale. Looking back to-day through the heritage of two centuries, these names are but added to the roll of those who have served Yale because they have served their country.

The stone and iron of this gate will keep alive the names of these two men. It is our hope that the men of Yale will, in their own lives, perpetuate their manhood and courage.

7. Speech of acceptance of the Cheney-Ives Gateway, by Arthur Twining Hadley:

Of all the memorials which are offered to a university by the gratitude of her sons, there are none which serve so closely and fully the purposes of her life as those monuments which commemorate her dead heroes. The most important part of the teaching of a place like *Yale* is found in the lessons of public spirit and devotion to high ideals

which it gives. These things can in some measure be learned in books of poetry and of history. They can in some measure be learned from the daily life of the college and the sentiments which it inculcates. But they are most solemnly and vividly brought home by visible signs, such as this gateway furnishes, that the spirit of ancient heroism is not dead, and its highest lessons are not lost.

It seems as if the bravest and best in your class, as well as in others, had been sacrificed to the cruel exigencies of war. But they are not sacrificed. It is through men like those whom we have loved, and whom we here commemorate, that the life of the republic is kept alive. As we have learned lessons of heroism from the men who went forth to die in the Civil War, so will our children and our children's children learn the same lesson from the heroes who have a little while lived with us and then entered into an immortality of glory.

CHAPTER XXV

SPEECHES FOR SOCIAL OCCASIONS

Introduction. — Business men and others sometimes meet around a banquet table to discuss problems of a very serious nature. This is done for convenience and the discussion is of an informal and sometimes of an unsocial character. Speeches which might be delivered on such an occasion follow a law of their own and will not now be considered. The after-dinner speeches that we shall study are such as would be appropriate for a purely social occasion, one in which good-fellowship takes the place of antagonism, and appreciation of others is substituted for egotism.

In this chapter we shall learn: (1) the general characteristics of the after-dinner speech and (2) the special characteristics of three different sorts of speeches which might be given at a dinner.

I. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AFTER-DINNER SPEECH

Unity. — In the first place, the after-dinner speech should have a point or purpose, and should not consist merely of a string of stories. The speaker should confine himself to one idea well illustrated. It is said that the secret of Senator Hoar's popularity at the Harvard Phi Beta Kappa dinners was that his speeches contained one original idea, clearly stated, and one fresh story, well told. A story should be used merely to enforce a point which

has been made and not as an end in itself. "The comic story is a good servant but a bad master."

The habit of threading a series of jokes on a very slender strand of thought has grown out of the notion that an after-dinner speaker must play the role of humorist. This idea is a mistake; it is only necessary to say the fitting, agreeable thing. Brander Matthews says, "Useful as humor may be, good humor is even more useful." Weighty subjects, even, may be handled in an after-dinner speech, if treated in a lighter vein. The speaker must be careful, however, to distinguish between lightness and levity. Lightness is an agreeable playfulness which is not flippancy.

Brevity. — In the second place, the after-dinner speech should be brief. Considerable responsibility rests with the toastmaster in this matter. He should be brief and lively himself and remind others to be so. In general, the program should not last longer than an hour and a half. If speeches are long and rambling, we are inclined to agree with James Russell Lowell in his addition to the beatitudes, "Blessed is he who has nothing to say — and cannot be persuaded to say it."

Spontaneity. — In the third place, the after-dinner speech should give the impression of not having been prepared. There is no variety of speech in which the word-outline method of preparation will be of greater service. This method will enable the speaker to make reference to what has been previously mentioned and, in this way, greatly increase the semblance of spontaneity. The style of address, also, should be conversational rather than oratorical; that is, the majority of the sentences should be loose rather than periodic.

II. THREE SORTS OF AFTER-DINNER SPEECHES

Speech of a Representative. — Let us first consider such a speech as might be delivered by the representative of one group of people before another group of people. Since the speaker is a guest, his discourse should be courteous and even complimentary to the society, institution, or group of people which is acting as his host. He should thank the presiding officer for any words of welcome which may have been spoken, and express, in response, the cordial greetings of his own society. In so doing, it is well to share the honor which he has received with those whom he represents. Mr. Bryce says, for instance, that he regards the honor of speaking before the Harvard Alumni as an expression of warm feeling toward his own country. If the speaker makes any comparisons, it should be to the detriment of his own organization. Notice the comparison which Mr. Bryce makes between the wealth of British and American universities. Notice also that he is very careful not to imply that English traditions are finer than ours, since we might be sensitive on that point.

The speaker should not only be courteous but he should embrace every opportunity to create a feeling of mutual understanding and sympathy. The unifying thought may be merely a trivial matter, as was Mr. Bryce's reference to the origin of the songs which were sung at the meeting. The speaker may discuss the progress or success of the two organizations. He may allude to their common ideals and purposes. This was done by Elihu Root, as Representative of the United States at the Third Conference of American Republics, when he said, "Unlike as we are in many respects, we are alike in this, that we are

all engaged under new conditions and free from the traditional forms and limitations of the Old World, in working out the same problem of popular self-government."

Welcome Tribute. — Let us next consider a speech of welcome, paying tribute to an honored guest. The guest may be a distinguished foreigner or an eminent citizen who is traveling through his own country. Such a speech may also be given on the occasion of a man's return to his home city.

The principal object of the speech is to express appreciation of the services which the noted guest has rendered to society. The speaker should be careful, however, not to exaggerate this feature of the address, since it might cause embarrassment to the subject of his remarks.

Again, historical material having some connection with the life interest of the visitor is always appropriate. A few examples will help to make this point clear. Mr. Depew, when he welcomed Lieutenant Shackleton to our country, gave a brief historical review of arctic and antarctic exploration. Lord Coleridge, in a tribute to Henry Irving, told what actors in general had done for literature and then what Irving in particular had done for Shakespeare. Mr. Depew, in his welcome tribute to Sir Edwin Arnold, dwelt upon current events that illustrated the power of literary men to maintain amity between the nations.

Presentation and Acceptance of a Gift. — A gift is sometimes presented at a dinner and sometimes upon a more formal occasion, such as graduation exercises. The principles governing the selection of material are, however, the same in both cases.

The speaker who presents the gift should magnify the

services or worth of the recipient and minimize the value of the gift. In response, the recipient of the gift should express his appreciation of the kindness of his friends, minimize the value of his own services, and, if possible, share the honor with the others. Gladstone did this in his response to the Liberals of Greenwich. These principles apply equally to the presentation of a class gift at graduation. The speaker should not say that the gift is presented in order to perpetuate the memory of his class; on the contrary, he should present it as an expression of appreciation for value received. The rule holds good even when the gift takes the form of a monument to individual members of the class. This was the situation in the case of the Cheney-Ives Gateway, but it will be noticed that Mr. Fisher makes it clear that these were but two among many who had followed the glorious traditions of Yale.

Something may be said, also, about the considerations which governed the choice of the gift, provided they are complimentary to the recipient. The speaker will also greatly enhance the beauty and dignity of his speech, if he will go beyond the material qualities of the gift and discover in it a significance, or deeper meaning. An illustration may be found in Mr. Depew's reference to the "pocket-piece." Again, this idea of symbolism is the dominant note in both the presentation and acceptance of the Cheney-Ives Gateway.

Conclusion. — In this chapter we have studied (1) the general characteristics of an after-dinner speech and (2) the special characteristics of three different kinds of after-dinner speeches.

TOPICAL OUTLINE

SPEECHES FOR SOCIAL OCCASIONS

Introduction.

- I. What is meant by a social occasion.
- II. Advance summary.

Body.

- I. General characteristics of the after-dinner speech.
 - A. Unity.
 1. One idea.
 - (a) Senator Hoar.
 - (b) Right and wrong use of the story.
 2. Origin of the story habit.
 - (a) Humor and good humor.
 - (b) Weighty subjects.
 - B. Brevity.
 1. Toastmaster.
 2. Length of program.
 3. Lowell.
 - C. Spontaneity.
 1. Method of preparation.
 2. Style of address.
- II. Three sorts of after-dinner speeches.
 - A. Speeches of a representative.
 1. Courtesy to hosts.
 - (a) Thanks and greetings.
 - (b) Honor shared with others. — Bryce.
 - (c) Comparisons.
 - (1) Universities.
 - (2) Traditions.
 2. Mutual understanding.
 - (a) Trivial thought. — Songs.
 - (b) Progress.
 - (c) Common purposes. — Root.
 - B. Welcome tribute.
 1. Occasions.
 2. Object. — Warning.
 3. Historical material. — Examples.

- II. B. 3. (a) Lieutenant Shackleton.
(b) Henry Irving.
(c) Sir Edwin Arnold.
- C. Presentation and acceptance of a gift.
1. Occasions.
 2. Attitude of presenter and recipient.
 - (a) Honors shared. — Gladstone.
 - (b) Mistake in presentation of class gift.
 - (1) A monument not an exception.
 3. Nature of the gift.
 - (a) Motives of choice.
 - (b) Significance.
 1. "Pocket piece."
 2. Cheney-Ives Gateway.

Conclusion.

Exercise I. — Read the chapter and be able to recite from the topical outline.

Exercise II. — Review the speech of Chauncey M. Depew to the vagrants, and answer the questions which follow. This speech was chosen for study because of its unique character. An after-dinner speaker usually addresses people of his own class in society.

1. What is the chief difficulty which would confront a man of wealth in his endeavor to speak in an *agreeable* way on a social occasion to fifty men who are "down and out"?
2. Make a list of all the ideas or phrases which would tend to place the speaker and the listeners on a common level.
3. Write in one sentence what seems to be the point or purpose of his speech.
4. How many "jokes" did he tell?
5. Make a list of the humorous or playful references.
6. Compare the style of language with that used by the same speaker in the welcome tribute to Sir Edwin Arnold.

Exercise III. — Imagine that, as a member of some organization, you are the guest at a dinner given by a similar organization in some other city. It may be a high-school literary society, dramatic, music, language, art, or agricultural club, a Christian Endeavor, Y. M. C. A.,

Y. W. C. A., Chamber of Commerce, or lodge. Prepare a three-minute speech which would be suitable for such an occasion.

Exercise IV. — Select some great character of the present day. Find out all you can about his life and work by consulting the *Reader's Guide*, *Who's Who*, and the card catalogue. Imagine that some organization has planned a dinner in his honor and that you have been asked to pay tribute to him in an address of welcome. Let it occupy from three to four minutes.

Exercise V. — It is evident that some gifts are presented on social occasions and others upon more formal occasions. Select a situation from the following list and prepare a presentation speech of about three minutes. Then imagine that you are the recipient of the gift and prepare a one-minute response:

A. Social Occasions.

1. (a) As president of the student body, present a gift from that organization to an athletic coach in recognition of his former services. He is obliged to give up the work.
(b) Make the response of a coach under such circumstances.
2. (a) In behalf of a Bible Study Class, present a gift to your teacher.
(b) Accept the gift.
3. (a) As one of the directors of a company, present a gift to a successful manager who is about to leave.
(b) Accept the gift.

B. Formal Occasions.

1. (a) Present to your school a gift from your graduating class.
(b) As president of the student body, accept a gift.
2. (a) As president of a Woman's Patriotic Society, present a flag to the student body of a high school.
(b) As president of the student body, accept the flag.
3. (a) As representative of a society which has donated the trophy, present a cup to the school which has won a series of debates.
(b) As president of the student body of the winning school, accept the cup.

4. (a) As leader, manager, or captain of an athletic team, present to the student body a trophy which your team has won.
(b) As president of the student body or as trophy keeper, accept the trophy in behalf of the school.
5. (a) As president of a student body, present to individual athletes or debaters medals or other emblems of merit.
(b) It is not customary to make a response on such an occasion.

Exercise VI. — Let the class be divided into sections of six or seven members each. One student in each section shall be chosen to act as toastmaster. It shall be the duty of the toastmaster to select subjects, assign them to the members in his section, and to preside at the meeting of his section. He may imagine that the occasion is a class reunion, or any other social function.

APPENDIX I

Specimen Outline for a Student's two-minute Speech

Salutation: Members of the East Side Women's Club.

Theme Sentence: I have come to urge you to join with us in a movement for early Christmas shopping.

WORD OUTLINE

Introduction	{	Thank						
		Combining — Urge						
Body	{	Shopgirls — Mean	{	Windows				
				Stories				
		Conditions — one	{	Wait				
				Twelve				
				Crowded				
		Woman	{	Measuring	Shifting	Home	{	Make
		Right	{	Machines — human				
				Power — duty				
								Buy

Conclusion: Show — Sign.

WRITTEN SPEECH

Early Christmas Shopping

Members of the East Side Women's Club: I thank you and your worthy President for the opportunity you have given me to speak to you this afternoon. The Women's Clubs of the West Side are combining in a movement for early Christmas shopping and, as their representative, I have come to urge you to join with us.

By so doing you can express the true Christmas spirit toward the shopgirls of this city. What do we mean by the true Christmas spirit? Shop windows, magazine covers, and postcards all express good will toward men; stories told to sleepy children on Christmas eve are filled with thoughts of peace and love. Are we expressing this spirit when we wait until the last week to do our shopping for Christmas?

There are many pitiable conditions in our large department stores. Let me tell you of one instance which came under my observation. It was a quarter before twelve on Christmas eve. The large store was crowded to its capacity with people who screamed at the shopgirls and commanded them to wait upon them. Behind the ribbon counter was a young woman, scarcely more than a girl, measuring yards and yards of ribbon and shifting from one swollen foot to the other as she endeavored to wait on a dozen customers at once. In this woman's home was a sick husband and a little child who prayed to Santa Claus every night to bring her a doll that would open and close its eyes; but the poor little mother was too tired when she reached home after her work to make anything for the child. She could not buy anything, for every cent must be saved for necessities.

These shopgirls have a right to their holidays. They are not machines, wound up and guaranteed not to stop, but are human beings like ourselves, capable of getting worn out and capable of enjoying their pleasures. It is within our power as members of the Women's Clubs to force the proprietors of these stores to close their doors at six o'clock. It is not a question of charity but of duty.

Women of the East Side, I appeal to you to show in this way your true Christmas spirit. If you will join with us, sign your name to this resolution which I shall leave with your President, and which will be sent to the Club Headquarters.

APPENDIX II

Subjects for two-minute Argumentative or Expository Speeches ¹

I. SCHOOL LIFE

The Advantages of going to High School.
The Course I intend to take in High School.
Should One Student Report Another for Cheating?
Should One Student Report Another for Stealing from the Coat Room?
What One should Think about in Choosing a Vocation.
Should the School Paper Follow or Form Public Opinion?
One Session per Day is Better than Two in a High School.
Advantages of a School Cafeteria.
What Reform is Most Needed in our Student Body?
Value of a School Bank.
Value of a School Weekly.
The Country Boy has Advantages Superior to the City Boy.
The School Initial should be Granted for Success in Oratory and Debate.
Value of School Gardens.
One Reason Why High-school Boys should not Visit Poolrooms.
Teachers should not Assign any Work for Vacation.
The School Furnishes a Training for Citizenship.
Should two Pupils ever Study Together?
The Study of Algebra should not be made Compulsory in High School.
High-school Students should Read the Newspapers.
Letting the Other Fellow Lead.
Differences between High School and Grammar School.
Our Debating Society.

¹ These subjects as well as those in Appendix III have been contributed mainly by teachers in the different departments represented.

- Why I have selected ——— University.
The Dangers of High-school Fraternities.
Place of Social Life in High School.
High-school Girls should Wear a Uniform Dress.
Should we hold Rallies before or after the Games?
Should a Student Work for Four Years in one Activity?
Rugby versus American Football.
Compulsory Physical Education in the High School.
Should Credit toward Graduation be Given for Athletic Activities?
Should the High School Limit the Number of Sports in which a Student may Participate?
Should Athletic Competitions be Intra-school or Inter-school?
Is Gymnasium Work or Organized Athletics better for the Average Individual?
Are we Making the Winning of High-school Monograms too Easy?
Does Participation in Athletics Increase or Diminish the Scholastic Standing of High-school Students?
Are High Schools Copying too Closely the Universities in their Management and Ideas of Athletics?
Value of Gymnasium Work for Girls.
Value of Cadet Drill.
The Benefits of Systematic Exercise.
The Advisability of Faculty Supervision in Athletics.
The Ideals of the new California Interscholastic Federation.
The Effect of Athletic Sports on Morals.
The Educational Value of Athletics.
The School's Need of a Modernly Equipped Gymnasium.
The Relative Value of our Various Sports.
The Value of Freshman Teams in High School.
Can our Alumni Help our Teams and the General Tone of Athletics?
The Students who Work in the Background (Custodian Committee, Student Body President, and Business Manager of Paper).
What should be the Work of an Honor Society?
What should be the Purpose of a Literary Society?
Possibilities of the Junior Chamber of Commerce.
Credits (not more than 10) should be Deducted from a History (or other) Paper for Faulty Composition.

Examinations are Not a Fair Test of Ability.
Frequent Written Tests should be Given in all Subjects.
One should Never use Slang.
Slang is Sometimes Justifiable.
Basket-ball is an Excellent Exercise for Girls.
Literary Societies are a Benefit to High-school Pupils.
Our School should have a Larger Faculty.
An "Honor Society" should Require a Scholarship Standard as well as a Record of Activity in Student Affairs.
Girls Give More to the Student Body Fund than Boys and Receive Less from it.
Students should be Allowed School Credit for Editing the School Paper (or for Work on the Debating Team, or for Participation in Dramatic Performances).
Reasons Why it is Difficult to Prepare Monday's Lessons.

II. LIFE OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL

The ——— is the Best Newspaper in the City.
Public Libraries should be Open on Sunday Afternoon.
Women should be Appointed as Members of the School Board.
Wild Game should (or should not) be Protected.
Why Forests should be Preserved.
Motion Pictures.
Advantages to a City of an Exposition.
Disadvantages to a City of an Exposition.
Machinery Used in the Construction of the Panama Canal.
Blasting Rock.
My Objections to Card Playing.
How Coal is Mined.
A Modern Kitchen Convenience.
Loss of Sight Makes other Senses more Acute.
The Rural Delivery of Mail is a Great Boon to Farmers.
Every Boy should have a Workshop.
Trolley Roads are a Great Benefit to the Country.
Presence of Mind often Averts Danger.
Qualities Necessary to Make a Good Dressmaker. (May substitute any other vocation.)

- Opportunities for Stenographers. (May substitute any other vocation.)
- Advantages of being an Engineer. (May substitute any other vocation.)
- Why Girls should take Music Lessons.
- How to Care for Flowers.
- How to Make a Popgun.
- How Ice Cream is Made.
- Trout-fishing is an Art.
- Labor-saving Machinery is of Permanent Advantage to Mankind, although Temporarily Detrimental to Laborers.
- How to Develop a Film. (May substitute Print.)
- Why I Like to Hike. (May substitute Fish, Swim, Hunt, or any other favorite sport.)
- A Man (or Woman) may Reveal his Character on a Street Car.
- Appearance and Habits of the English Sparrow. (May substitute any other well-known bird.)
- How Golf is Played. (May substitute any other game.)
- How to Prepare a Bed in the Woods.
- How to Learn to Swim.
- There is a Wrong and a Right Kind of Class Spirit.
- How to Raise Chrysanthemums.
- Something which Boy Scouts Learn.
- Manufacture of Glass (Steel-rails, Pencils, or other object).
- What to Wear for a Day's Hike.
- What to Carry on a Day's Hike.
- The Qualities of a Good Speaker.
- How to Make a Garden.
- How to Dry Prunes.
- Benefit of Sleeping Out of Doors.
- Use of the Aeroplane in the European War.
- Society for the Sale of Red Cross Stamps.
- Have the Modern Dances a Value?
- How to Care for a Horse. (May substitute Incubator, Goldfish, Poultry, etc.)
- What is expected of a Minister's Daughter?
- What is expected of a Minister's Son?
- How to Set Up a Tent.

How to Build a Fire in the Woods.
How to Sail a Boat.
How to Plant a Tree.
How to Build and Launch a Raft.
How to Hive Bees.
How to Break a Colt.
How Butter is Made (Explain to City Girls).
The Cost and Style of Commencement Dresses should be Regulated by School Authorities.
How to Make Beads.
Erection of an Amateur Wireless Mast.
The Average Young Man of To-day has Greater Opportunities to make his Life a Success than had his Forefathers.
It is Better to Attend a Small College than a Large One.
It is Better to Work One's Way through College than to Borrow the Money and Pay it Back after Graduation.
Schools should Observe Peace Day.
Frequent Tests should be Substituted for Term Examinations.
Habits of the Alligator. (May substitute some other animal.)

III. ENGLISH

Ninth Year

How the Disinherited "Knight Secured his Horse and Armor for the Journey."
The Treatment of Jews in King Richard's Time.
Scottish Life is Interesting.
Reasons Why I should Study Literature.
Reasons Why I should Study Written Composition.
Reasons Why I should Study Oral Composition.
The Study of Myths is Worth While.
Reasons Why Memory Work should be Required.
The Main Features of a Short Story.
How to Increase one's Vocabulary.
The Tournament.
Organization of Locksley's Men.
Feeling between the Saxons and the Normans.
The Archery Contest.
Customs of Homer's Time.

Tenth Year

Manners in Shakespeare's Time.
Classes of People in Shakespeare's Time.
Means of Travel and Communication in Shakespeare's Time.
Dress of Men and Women in Shakespeare's Time.
Condition of the Theater in Shakespeare's Time.
Origin of the Drama.
The Duty of an Educated Man according to George William Curtis.
The Desires of King Arthur.
Lincoln's Training in Oratory.
The Morality Play.
Special Fitness of Lincoln as a Leader of the Nation in 1861.
Shakespeare's Cæsar compared with the Historical Cæsar.
Was King Arthur's Life a Failure?
Why did Brutus rather than Cassius see the Ghost?
Lincoln's Attitude toward Slavery.
Brutus was (or was not) Sincere in the Reasons he Gave for Joining the Conspiracy.
Which would have been the Better Leader of the Conspiracy, Brutus or Cassius?
Was Gradual Emancipation of the Slaves a Good Solution of the Slavery Problem?
Lincoln's Views on Woman Suffrage.

Eleventh Year

Absurdities of the Plot of *The Vicar of Wakefield*.
The Magazine in American Literature.
Humor in American Literature.
Influence of the Puritan Conscience on American Literature.
Historical Tendency in American Literature.
Early American Histories.
Cotton Mather's Work.
The Literary Aims of Benjamin Franklin.
Political Writings during the Revolutionary Period.
Difference between the Transcendentalist Ideas and Anti-slavery Ideas.
Orators among Anti-slavery Writers.
Why there was Little Writing in the South.

The Early Masque.
 London Coffee-houses of the Eighteenth Century.
 La Marseillaise.
 Elegiac Poetry.
 Characteristics of the Early Novel.
 Human Life is the Subject Matter of Literature.
 Effect of Eppie on Silas Marner.
 Art of George Eliot in Portraying Personalities.
 Art of George Eliot in Portraying Rustic Life.
 Reality of the Characters in *Silas Marner*.
 How *Lycidas* Came to be Written.
 Value of a Course in Grammar.

Twelfth Year

Carlyle's Style in His *Essay on Burns*.
 Burke's Objections to the Use of Force.
 Burke's Discussion of the Importance of the Colonies.
 Burke's Discussion of the Spirit of Liberty in the Colonies.
 Development of the Masque.
 Forms of Poetry — Epic, Lyric, and Dramatic.
 Burke's Policy in Regard to Treatment of Colonies has been Justified by Subsequent Experience in America, Canada, and South Africa.

IV. HISTORY

Ancient History

Ancient Ways of Preserving the Dead.
 Religion of the Babylonians.
 Religion of the Egyptians.
 Phœnician Trades.
 Great National Games of the Greeks.
 Greek Festivals.
 Training of Spartan Boys.
 Laws of Draco.
 One of Solon's Reforms.
 Greek Education.
 Marriage among the Greeks.
 How I Prepare my History Lesson.
 Social Classes in Rome.

Licinian Laws.

Education of Early Romans.

Medieval and Modern History

The Feudal System.

Rise of Towns.

Schools of the Middle Ages.

Effects of the Crusades.

Medieval Commerce (Guilds).

The Siberian Exile System.

Peter's Reforms.

Rise of the Nations against Napoleon.

European Struggle for Constitutional Government.

Causes of the French Revolution.

Markets and Fairs.

How a Medieval Town Looked.

Chivalry.

Medieval Warfare.

The Cathedral Movement.

Character and Career of Saladin.

Dress, Arms, and Habits of the Crusader.

The Religious-Military Orders.

English History

Navigation Acts of 1651.

Importance of Anglo-Saxon Conquest.

Queen Elizabeth as a Patron of Art and Literature.

Methods by which William the Conqueror Established his Rule.

Importance of the Magna Carta.

Causes and Results of the Peasants' Revolt.

Means used by Henry VII to Establish a Centralized Government.

Effect of the Hundred Years' War upon English Commerce and Trade.

Importance of the Bill of Rights.

Importance of the Reform Bill of 1832.

Work of the Wesleys in the Eighteenth Century.

The Stuart Kings were Arbitrary Rulers.

United States History

Why did the English Surpass in Colonization?
 The American Indian has been Unjustly Treated.
 The Justification of the American Revolution.
 Our Debt to Foreigners in the Revolution.
 The Development of the Union before 1789.
 The Defective Government under the Articles of Confederation.
 The Compromises of the Constitution, why Necessary?
 States Rights versus National Sovereignty.
 The Westward Movement — Its Effect on American Civilization.

V. LATIN

The Study of Latin Helps us Better to Understand our own Language and Other Languages.
 A Knowledge of Latin is of Practical Value.
 Cicero's Action in Putting to Death the Conspirators was Illegal.
 Catiline was not a Traitor and Cicero's Arraignment of Him was for Political Effect and not a Patriotic Action.
 Roman Military Tactics.
 Roman Provinces and Their Government.
 The Lack of Interest in the Classics is to be Deplored.

VI. SCIENCE

Chemistry

Acids	{	What are they? How detected? Properties.	Sub-topics suggestive — not limiting.
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Bases: Relation to acids.

Salts	{	How found? Relation to bases and acids.
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Flame tests.

Water	{	Composition by volume. Composition by weight. Solution properties.
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Discovery of the rare gases in the air.

Physical Geography

Construction, Operation, and Use of a Barometer.
Forecasting of Weather.
Study of a Piece of Coal.
Soil Requirements — Tests.
Importance of the Ocean.
The Making of a Cave.
The Work of Carbon-dioxide Gas.
The Importance that Floodplains have Played in the World's History.
Effect of Mountains on Races.
Growth of a Continent.
Highways of Commerce.
The Ocean's Depth and Temperature.
Causes of Tides.
A Tornado.

Biology

Value of Physiology as a Study.
Effect of Alcohol on the Human Body.
How a Habit is formed.
Why One Should Eat Slowly.
Natural Defense of the Human Body against Harmful Bacteria.

Botany

Bacteria.
Evolution of Plant Life.
Economic Plants.
How New Species of Plants are Developed.
Mushrooms.
Our Wild Flowers.
How Plants Protect Themselves from Enemies.
An Experiment in Botany.
Grafting.
Buds on Stems.
Veining of Leaves.
Leaf Arrangement.
Movements of Leaves.
Structure of Leaves.

How Plants Receive Air.
How Plant Seeds are Scattered.
Successions of Plants.
Autumn Coloration.
Branching of Stems.
Structure of Stems.
Distribution of Plants.
Uses of Plants to People.
The Fall of the Leaf.
How Plants Manufacture Their Food.
Drought-tolerating Plants.
Weeds.
Vegetation of Newly Made Land.
How Overcrowding Kills Plants.
The Grouping of Plants around a Pond.
Water Plants.
Starch.
Stored Food in the Seed.
How Seeds Grow.
Hairs on Leaves.
Plant Roots.
Value of Cells.

Physics

Physics has a Practical Value for Boys.
Physics has a Practical Value for Girls.
Explain a Simple Machine.
Heat Expansion and Transmission.
Heat Engines.
Law of Conservation of Energy.
Magnetism.
An Application of Electricity.
Some Physical Laws of Sound.
Electric Waves.

VII. COMMERCIAL

Typing and Business

What is a Bank Check?
How a Saleslady Can Show Good Taste and Good Manners.

What a Saleslady Should Know about her Stock.
Typewriting as an Asset in the Business World.
Coördination of Typewriting, English, Spelling, and all Technical and Scientific Studies.
The "Touch" Typist versus the "Sight" Operator.
Value of a Commercial Education.
Advantages of Actual Practice in Bookkeeping.
Attitude in Business.
Principles of Double Entry Bookkeeping.
Qualifications of the Business Man (or Woman) of To-day.
Relation of Penmanship to Business.
Value of Commerical Arithmetic in Business.
Value of Rapid Calculation in Business.
Graduation from a High School is of Value to the Boy or Girl who Goes into Business.
A Student should Learn Typewriting before Going to College.

Commercial Geography, History, and Law

America will Always be Supreme as a Manufacturing Nation.
Origin of our Commercial Laws.
Influence of Fishing Industry in the Upbuilding of the Nation.
Influence of the Fur Industry in the Upbuilding of the Nation.
Influence of Lumber Industry in the Upbuilding of the Nation.
Economic Basis of the Civil War.
Commerce and Money in Colonial Days.
Character of Immigration.
The Industrial Revolution.
The Human Element in Commerce.
Law of Decreasing Returns as Applied to Nations.
How Commerce Depends upon Economic Forces.
Explain any Industry.
Growing Commercial Opportunities in Latin-America.

VIII. MANUAL ARTS

Art Crafts

How to Make a Simple Basket.
The Origin of Basketry.

Reed — Where Found, Preparations for Market, and Use in Basketry.

Raffia — Where Found, Preparations for Market, and Use in Basketry.

The Economic Value of Copper.

The Use of Metal in Early Ages.

The Value of the Study of Design.

How to Color a Piece of Copper.

Decoration should be Subordinate to Utility.

Enameling.

The Use of the Petch Pan.

Wood Work

Lumbering in the North.

The Art of Pattern-making.

The Manufacture of Glue or Sandpaper.

The Art of Molding.

The Advantages of Machinery in the Wood Shop.

Wood-finishing as an Art.

Mechanical Drawing

Drawing Instruments and Their Uses.

Why Free-hand Drawing should Precede Mechanical Drawing.

The Correct Method for the Making of a Working Drawing of a Chair.

Wood-turning

The Designing and Turning up of a Pair of Indian Clubs.

The Designing and Turning up of a Picture Frame.

Wood-turning Tools and Their Uses.

IX. HOME ECONOMICS

Cooking

Bread Making.

Pastry.

Cake.

Candy — Cream Candies.

Fruit Canning.

Jelly Making.

Macaroni Manufacture.

Girls should Study Domestic Science.

Table Service

Digestible Menus.

Eating Habits worth Cultivating and Preserving.

Three Styles of Serving Meals.

Setting the Table.

Points to be Remembered in Serving all Meals.

General Rules for Waiting on a Table.

Housing

Advantages of Owning a Home.

Disadvantages of Owning a Home.

Cost of Rental and its Variations.

Things to Consider in Building in a City.

Functions of Rooms.

Kitchen Furnishings.

Labor-saving Devices.

Value of a Family Budget.

X. FINE ARTS

History's Debt to Art.

How Environment Influences Art.

Value of a Course in Drawing.

Nature's Suggestions for Design Material.

Art Study as a Training for Appreciation.

Art Study as a Training for Observation.

Art History—Comparison (Egyptian, Turkish, and Roman Art)
and Difference.

Our Heritage from the Greek.

Our Heritage from the Roman.

Our Heritage from the Gothic.

The Gothic Period—Why Distinctive, etc.

Color Harmonies—How Obtained, Nature, Use, etc.

Italian Painting.

Dutch Painting.

Some Historic Decorative Motifs — Their Evolution.

Public Taste — How and Why it should be Educated.

XI. MUSIC

Value of Studying Music and Public Speaking Together.

Musical History Helps us to Appreciate Music.

Should Music in some Form be Required in High School?

Mexican Music.

Meaning of Classical Music.

Music as a Moral and Religious Force.

Place and Scope of so-called Popular Music.

Music of the Ancients.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Mechanical Music.

Oratorio compared with the Opera.

Folk Songs.

The Influence of Ancient Greek Music on the Music of To-day.

Primitive Music.

The Origin and Development of the Opera.

Why Roman Music Died Out.

How Grecian Music was kept Alive.

How we Know Anything of the Musical History of Egypt.

Greek Instruments.

Richard Wagner's Operas.

Opera at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century.

The Chant.

The Pianoforte.

Growth of the Orchestra.

Music in Scandinavia and Russia.

The Violin.

Recent Composers.

Italian Music.

American Music.

The Effect of Christianity on Music.

Chinese Music.

Church Music.

Music of the Future.

Handel's Orchestra.
Growth of Symphony.

XII. AGRICULTURE

The Work of the Leaves.
The Work of the Roots.
Insect Enemies of the Farmer.
Propagation.
Different Methods of Irrigation.
Benefits of Clover Crops.
Birds are (or are not) Beneficial to the Farmer.
Uses of Lime in Correcting Poor Soils.
The Soil:
 1. How Formed.
 2. Mineral Content.
 3. Animal Content.
 4. Fertility.
Farmers should Study Scientific Agriculture.

APPENDIX III

Subjects for two-minute Narrative and Descriptive Speeches

I. ENGLISH

Ninth Year

The Duel between Roderick Dhu and Allan Graeme.

The Black Knight's Journey to the Tourney.

The "Death" of Athelstane.

The Story of Mad Blanche.

Some Interesting Scotch Manners and Customs.

Description of Brian, the Hermit, Roderick Dhu, James Fitz

James, Ellen, the Loch Katrine Country.

The Myth I Like Best.

Description of Ellen's Isle.

Attack on the Castle of Front de Bœuf.

The Trial by Combat.

Cedric's House.

An Old English Castle.

The Tournament.

Locksley's Shooting before Prince John.

The Knight and the Friar.

Cedric and Athelstane.

At John's Banquet.

Trial of Rebecca at Templestowe.

Characters of Rebecca and Rowena Compared.

The Templar (or other character).

Rebecca's Trial.

Tenth Year

One of the Pictures in Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*.

Comparison of Shakespeare's Heroines (Rosalind and Viola).

Stratford (Shakespeare's Town and Times):

1. Trinity Church.
2. Shakespeare's House.
3. The Grammar School.

Character of Coleridge.

Goldsmith's Early Life.

Some Good Points in the Character of Cassius.

The Ancient Mariner's Story.

Story of Elaine.

The Casting Away of Excalibur.

Gareth's First Quest.

Life of Some Successful Man or Woman.

Adventure of Launcelot.

Eleventh Year

From *The House of the Seven Gables*:

The Old Pyncheon Family.

Description of Hepzibah's Shop.

The Daguerreotypist.

Description of Jaffrey Pyncheon.

Description of Phœbe Pyncheon.

Description of Clifford Pyncheon.

The Pyncheon Garden.

The Death of Jaffrey Pyncheon.

Moses at the Fair. (*Vicar of Wakefield*.)

Character of the Vicar of Wakefield.

The Story of Orpheus.

The First English Novel.

Anecdotes of Goldsmith's Eccentricities.

Any one of Dickens' Sketches by Boz.

My Favorite Hero in Fiction.

{ Irving's *Life of*
Goldsmith.
Boswell's *Life of*
Johnson.

Twelfth Year

Character Sketches of Burns, Thomas Carlyle, Edmund Burke, •

Lord North, or George III.

Dr. Johnson's Literary Club.

Wordsworth as a Nature Poet.

II. HISTORY

The student may describe the personal appearance or traits of character of some great historical personage, or he may relate the story of some great event. The following are merely suggestive. The student may choose any other which he can handle in a more picturesque or dramatic way.

Ancient History

Characters

Pericles.
Socrates.
Alexander the Great.

Events

Battle of Thermopylæ.
March of the Ten Thousand.
Hannibal's March into Italy.

Medieval and Modern History

Characters

Charlemagne.
Peter the Great.
Frederick the Great.

Events

The Children's Crusade.
An Event of the French Revolution.
The Battle of Waterloo.

English History

Characters

Henry II.
Queen Elizabeth.
William Gladstone.

Events

The Killing of Becket.
Battle of Trafalgar.
A Crisis in Parliament.
Scott's Dash to the Pole.

United States History

Characters

Benjamin Franklin, the Diplomat.
Andrew Jackson, the Popular Idol.
Horace Greeley, Prince of American Journalism.

Events

The Sinking of the Merrimac.
Assassination of Lincoln.
Reconstruction Days.
A Story of Guerilla Warfare in the Philippines.

III. ANCIENT OR MODERN LANGUAGES

1. Description of a character or a scene studied in a foreign tongue.
2. Narration of a simple story translated from some other language. (Use imagination to embellish and make more elaborate.)

IV. SCHOOL LIFE

A Teacher Whom I Shall Remember.
The School Cafeteria on a Rainy Day.
Description of the School Farm.
Getting Ready for the Party.
Cleaning up After the Party.
How the Faculty played Baseball.
My First Punishment in School.
What Happened on the School Picnic.
Bonfire before the Big Game.
The Last Inning.
An Hour in the Study Hall.
School Building during Vacation (comparison).
The Assembly Hall at Lunch Time.

V. OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL

Missing the Train.
A Joke on Myself.
Teaching a Calf to Drink.
Our Embroidery Club.
A Trip to the City.
An Experience with a Tramp.
A Building (lighthouse, fort, or an old landmark).
A Spelling Match.
A Clam Bake.
A View from the Summit.
The Deacon.
In the Woods at Night.
Disturbing a Hornet's Nest.

An Intelligent Dog.
The Irate Conductor.
Lost in the Woods.
An Amusing Adventure.
A Glimpse of the President.
A Landslide.
Yesterday's Walk.
A Lonesome Spot.
What "Central" sees of the World.
A Great Waterfall.
Tell to a child: Jack the Giant Killer, Puss in Boots, or any other story.
A Lost Child.
With a Veteran of the Civil War.
Arrival of the Stagecoach.
My first Donkey Ride (horseback, bicycle, auto, stagecoach, etc.).
An Accident.
Making a Boat.
My First Experiment in the Kitchen.
April Fool.
My Play House.
How I Got the Worst of the Trade.
All Alone in the House.
Hiving the Bees.
A Hallowe'en Prank.
A Harvest Scene.
A Country Church.
Decorating for Easter.
A Mountaineer.
A Hermit.
Our Washerwoman.
A Morning in the Country.
When Brother Forgot his Speech.
How my Bravery was Tested.
Breaking a Colt.
Sleighbing.
My Favorite Hero in Fiction.
Choir Practice Last Saturday.

A Newsboy.
A True Ghost Story.
An Attempt to See the Sunrise.
My First Fight.
How I Study.
A Duck Hunt. (Substitute a Fishing Trip or other Hunt.)
Buying a Hat.
A Visit to Grandmother's.
How I Spent a Rainy Day.
An Interesting Conversation (Two Women in a Street Car,
Buying a Ticket, Meeting an Old Acquaintance).
How I Earned a Dollar.
The Facts About a Certain Strike.
A Visit to a Sugar Camp (Packing-house, or Factory of any kind).
An Act of Courtesy.
Speaking My First Piece.
My First Business Experience.
The Marshmallow Roast.
A Cruise in a Canoe.
Animals I Have Known.
The Japanese Store.
An Old Mission.
A Mountain Valley in the Sierras (or other mountains).
The Swimming Pool.
Our Attic.
The Letter that Upset Our Plans.
The Policeman.
The Circus Crowd.
Our Garden.
The Skating Rink.
A Second-hand Store.
A Kindergarten Room.
My Sunday-school Class.
The Village Grocery on a Winter Evening.
A Newspaper Cartoon.
My Friend.
A Deserted Farmhouse.
The Crowd on Election Night.

My Favorite Picture.
A Dandelion (or some other flower).
A Street Musician I Have Seen.
An Interesting Advertisement.
When School is Over.
The Morning After the Storm.
My New Dress.
A Shop Window.
The View from my Window.
Our Back Yard.
The Circus Parade.
The Park on a Holiday.
The City from a Height.
Up-town the Night After Christmas.
An Attractive Magazine Cover.
The Crowd on New Year's Eve.
In a Railway Station.
Field Day (Boat Race or other Contest).
The Bathing Beach, or A Trip to the Seashore.
When my Pet Died (dog, rabbit, lamb, etc.).
A Forest Fire.
The First Snowfall.
An Act of Kindness.
A Heroic Deed.
A Street Car Incident.
Among the Fakirs.
A Local Politician.
An Old Bookstore.
Waiting at the Ferryboat.
A Peculiar Sect.
Noon Hour on the Farm.
The Engine Room of an Ocean Steamship.
The Football Player Before and After the Game.
The Forest Before and After the Fire.
The Feelings of the Victors and the Vanquished.
June and November.
City Street at 6 A.M. and at 6 P.M.
A Legend of Our Neighborhood.

} Contrasts.

The Abandoned Mill.
My Experience in Canvassing.
Why I Didn't Play Football.
A Visit to "The Zone" in 1915.
A Historic Spot.
An Auto Accident.
My First Chemical Experiment.
A Balky Horse.
A Notable Mansion.
A Strange Animal of the Past.
A Fellow Commuter.
On the Mountain Top.
The Organ Grinder.
A Parisian Gown.
A Suit of Armor in a Museum.
The Village Post Office at Mail Time.
After Church Service.
Ballroom during the Dance.
After the Fire.
Launching the Ship.
As the Ship Left Port.
A Bargain Sale.
The Play is Over.
The Assembly Hall at Lunch Time.
A Mountain Climb.
A Journey in the Air.
A Race against Time.
In the Path of the Flood.
The Contest for the Medal.
Adrift on the Bay.

APPENDIX IV

Specimen Introduction to a Debate

Introduction to Lincoln's Address at Cooper-Institute, New York, February 27, 1860. F. B. Robinson refers to this address as one of the most perfectly constructed arguments on record. It is an excellent example of an introduction to a debate. The student should notice the following features:

1. It is mild in spirit.
2. It states that upon which both sides are agreed.
3. It gives a clear definition of all terms.
4. It asks questions and answers them, thus securing force.
5. It states the issue.

Mr. President and Fellow Citizens of New York: The facts with which I shall deal this evening are mainly old and familiar; nor is there anything new in the general use I shall make of them. If there shall be any novelty, it will be in the mode of presenting the facts, and the inferences and observations following that presentation. In his speech last autumn at Columbus, Ohio, as reported in the *New York Times*, Senator Douglas said:

"Our fathers, when they framed the government under which we live, understood this question just as well, and even better, than we do now."

I fully indorse this, and I adopt it as a text for this discourse. I so adopt it because it furnishes a precise and an agreed starting point for a discussion between Republicans and that wing of the Democracy headed by Senator Douglas. It simply leaves the inquiry: What was the understanding those fathers had of the question mentioned?

What is the frame of government under which we live? The answer must be, "The Constitution of the United States." That Constitution consists of the original, framed in 1787, and under which

the present government first went into operation, and twelve subsequent framed amendments, the first ten of which were framed in 1789.

Who were our fathers that framed the Constitution? I suppose the "thirty-nine" who signed the original instrument may be fairly called our fathers who framed that part of the present government. It is almost exactly true to say they framed it, and it is altogether true to say they fairly represented the opinion and sentiment of the whole nation at that time. Their names, being familiar to nearly all, and accessible to quite all, need not now be repeated.

I take these "thirty-nine," for the present, as being "our fathers who framed the government under which we live." What is the question which, according to the text, those fathers understood "just as well, and even better, than we do now"?

It is this: Does the proper division of the local from Federal authority, or anything in the Constitution, forbid our Federal Government to control as to slavery in our Federal Territories?

Upon this, Senator Douglas holds the affirmative, and Republicans the negative. This affirmation and denial form an issue; and this issue — this question — is precisely what the text declares our fathers understood "better than we." Let us now inquire whether the "thirty-nine," or any of them ever acted upon this question; and if they did, how they acted upon it — how they expressed that better understanding.

APPENDIX V (a)

Specimen Clash and Brief on "Student Government"

Resolved, That a system of student government should be established in ——— High School.

Definition:

- I. The affirmative stands for a system of student government which involves the following principles:
 1. Student officers shall be elected either directly or indirectly by the student body.
 2. All action shall be subject to the approval of the principal. (As the state holds cities responsible for certain duties, so the principal may hold the students responsible for the conduct of the school. *Outlook* 80: 947; *Elementary School Teacher*, 8: 452.)
 3. It is advisable to introduce student government gradually. (*Education* 25: 86.)

CLASH OF OPINION

AFFIRMATIVE		NEGATIVE	
<i>Points</i>	<i>Proofs</i>	<i>Points</i>	<i>Proofs</i>
1. Students are likely to feel a sense of responsibility for the good name of the school.	1. Shown in Hyde Park High School, Chicago. (<i>School Review</i> , 6:37.)	1. Students may not take an interest.	1. Did not notice when election was omitted. (<i>Nat. Edu. Ass'n.</i> 1908: 291.)
2. Wonderful change for the better has occurred in schools difficult to manage.	2. Night School in Philadelphia. (<i>El. Sch. T.</i> 8: 453.)	2. Many failures are reported.	2. Schools in South Carolina and Indiana. (<i>Education</i> , 22: 541.)

ORAL ENGLISH

CLASH OF OPINION (*continued*)

AFFIRMATIVE		NEGATIVE	
<i>Points</i>	<i>Proofs</i>	<i>Points</i>	<i>Proofs</i>
3. The attitude toward the teacher is changed.	3. He is regarded as an instructor rather than as a policeman.	3. (a) Bad government will result in disrespect to teachers. (b) A good teacher may arouse respect under the old system.	
4. Officers take duties seriously.	4. Girl's committee in Los Angeles High School. (<i>Atlantic Monthly</i> , 102: 678.)	4. Pupils sometimes use their offices for favoritism.	4. (a) Experience in Illinois Univ. (<i>Nat. Edu. Ass'n.</i> 1899: 542.) (b) Teachers say only 68% are good officers. (<i>Nat. Edu. Ass'n.</i> 1908: 292.)
5. (a) Instruction in citizenship should be practical as well as theoretical. (b) Pupils learn under guidance of teachers what they would be obliged to learn later at greater cost.	5. (a) We should "learn to do by doing." (b) Student government may be regarded as a laboratory.	5. Students are too immature to solve the problems of government successfully.	5. Quotation from Earl Barnes. (<i>Nat. Edu. Ass'n.</i> 1908: 293.)

No. 5 seems to be the strongest on the affirmative and Nos. 2, 3, and 5 on the negative. The main issue is, therefore, "Will the benefit of practical training in citizenship outweigh the danger of failure and resultant poor government?"

SPECIMEN BRIEF

The following brief was prepared by students in connection with a classroom debate. A much more extensive brief would be advisable if the debaters were preparing for an interscholastic contest.

Resolved, That a system of student government should be established in our high school.

Introduction.

I. Definition.

A. A good system of student government should be based upon the following principles:

1. Student officers shall be *elected* either directly or indirectly by the students.
2. All action shall be subject to approval by the principal.
 - (a) As the state holds the cities responsible for certain duties, so the principal may hold the students responsible for the conduct of the school.
3. Student government should be introduced and established gradually.

II. History.

A. The system has been tried in many places, as Los Angeles, Philadelphia, St. Louis.

III. Clash of Opinion.

- A. The affirmative claims that student government gives to pupils a practical training in citizenship.
- B. The negative holds that since students of high-school age are too immature to make a success of it, bad government and consequent disrespect for law will follow.

IV. Main Issue: Will the benefit derived from actual practice in the duties of citizenship outweigh the danger of failure and consequent disrespect for law?

Argument (Affirmative).

- I. There is slight danger of failure, for
 - A. The attitude of the students would be better, for
 1. Each would feel that he was responsible for the good name of the school, for
 - (a) The claim that students will decline to inform on their fellows is not always true. (*School Review*, 6: 39.)
 2. Observance of rules would be a result of reasoning rather than of fear and submission. (*Elementary School Teacher*, 7: 452.)
 3. The teacher would be regarded as an instructor rather than as a policeman.
 - B. Punishment is more effective when administered by one's equals.
 - C. In schools which have been difficult to govern, a wonderful change for the better has taken place.
 1. Gill's School. (*Outlook*, 80: 947.)
 2. Night School in Philadelphia (*Elementary School Teacher*, 7: 453.)
- II. Student Government makes the school of greater benefit to the community, for
 - A. Our instruction in citizenship at present is merely theoretical.
 - B. We should "learn to do by doing," for
 1. The rule of a monarchy will not prepare students for a democracy. (*Education*, 25: 87.)
 - C. Student government may be regarded as laboratory practice, for
 1. Pupils would learn by experience under the guidance of teachers what they would be obliged to learn later at greater cost, for
 - (a) They might learn that civic apathy results in bad government. (*Elementary School Teacher*, 7: 552.)
 2. Officers would gain a knowledge of human nature and an experience in leadership which would prove to be very valuable. (*Atlantic Monthly*, 102: 678.)

Argument (Negative).

I. There is great danger of failure, for

A. The students may not feel a sense of responsibility for the government.

1. In one case they failed to notice that an election had been omitted. (*Nat. Educa. Ass'n.* 1908: 291.)
2. They may hold it dishonorable to report a fellow student.
 - (a) This was true at Williams College (*Education*, 22: 542.)
3. They may elect mischievous students in the hope of lax discipline. (*Atlantic Monthly*, 102: 676.)

B. Officers may fail to take the right attitude, for

1. They may consider it too much trouble to hold office. (*Nat. Educa. Ass'n.* 1908: 292.)
2. They may use their offices
 - (a) For the benefit of their friends. (*Nat. Educa. Ass'n.* 1889: 542.)
 - (b) To take revenge on their enemies. (Cronson's *Pupil Self-Government*, p. 66.)
 - (c) As a cloak for their own misbehavior.
 - (1) Instance of hazing. (*Education*, 29: 336.)

C. Many failures have been reported.

1. Illinois University (*Nat. Educa. Ass'n.* 1889: 542).
2. Philadelphia (*Nat. Educa. Ass'n.* 1908: 291).
3. In South Carolina and Indiana. (*Education*, 22: 541.)

II. There is a better way to prepare students for citizenship, for

A. High-school students are not old enough to solve the problem of governing others, for

1. Many situations are too difficult even for teachers to handle wisely.
2. Teachers report that only 68% of officers can be called "good officers." (*Nat. Educa. Ass'n.* 1908: 292.)
3. Quotation from Earl Barnes (*Nat. Educa. Ass'n.* 1908: 293.)

B. Bad government will cause disrespect for law and so produce bad citizens.

C. A good teacher can usually secure the right attitude on the part of students under the present system.

APPENDIX V (b)

Brief Arranged for Two or Three Speakers

The following brief shows how material may be partitioned for either two or three speakers.

Resolved, That three-fourths of a jury should be competent to render a verdict in all criminal cases.

Introduction.

I. Definition.

A. "Three-fourths of a jury" means nine of the twelve men constituting a full panel of jurors.

B. "All criminal cases" includes those in which death is the penalty.

II. History.

A. The "three-fourths jury" has been used successfully in civil cases, and in some states for minor criminal offenses.

III. Main Issue: Does the danger to society through bribery, disagreements, and disrespect for the law outweigh the danger of a mistaken three-fourths decision in the case of an innocent accused person?

(Arranged for two speakers.)

I. The unit rule causes disrespect for the law, for

A. It leads to disagreements.

B. It causes delay in impaneling jurors.

II. The three-fourths verdict is a reasonable safeguard.

A. It is unreasonable to expect 12 men to agree any more than 72 men.

(Arranged for three speakers.)

I. The unit rule is unreasonable.

A. When there is conflicting evidence it is unreasonable to expect 12 men to agree any more than 72 men.

B. It gives to an obstinate, bribed, or prejudiced juror the power to defeat justice.

- B. Numerous other safeguards have been established since the unit rule originated, such as habeas corpus, appeal, etc.
 - C. We should think of the innocent victims of the criminal as well as the innocent accused.
- C. The verdict of 9 out of 12 is a reasonable protection to both.
- II. The unit rule, through delay and defeat of justice, causes disrespect for the law.
 - A. Disagreements are frequent.
 - B. It causes delay in impaneling jurors.
 - C. It leads to compromises.
 - III. The unit rule is unnecessary, for
 - A. Numerous other safeguards have been established since the unit rule was originated.
 - B. Under the present social conditions, there is more danger of injustice to the innocent victims than to the innocent accused.
 - C. We should think of the innocent victims of the criminal as well as of the innocent accused.

APPENDIX VI

List of Debatable Questions with General References ¹

I. Government Activity *versus* Private Enterprise.

1. Cities should own and operate their street railways.

<i>Debater's Handbook.</i>	Ringwalt, 184.
Carpenter, 8.	Shurter and Taylor, 106, 67.
Robbins, 134.	Brookings, 132.
Craig, 337.	

2. The public telephone and telegraph lines should be acquired by the Federal Government.

Brookings, 126	Shurter, 76 and 79.
Craig, 185.	<i>Debater's Handbook.</i>
Ringwalt, 174.	

3. The United States should own and operate the railroads.

<i>Debater's Handbook.</i>	<i>Intercollegiate Debates</i> , IV,
Brookings, 123.	255.
Shurter, 73.	Robbins, 88.
Craig, 106.	Ringwalt, 163.

4. The United States should establish a system of compulsory insurance. (This question may be narrowed so as to apply to accident, unemployment, or old age.)

Intercollegiate Debates, IV, 303 (Accident); 377 (Old Age).
Debater's Handbook (Deals with all forms).
Shurter, 173 (Accident); 102 (Municipal Aid to Unemployed);
200 (Old Age Pensions); 88 (Housing of Poor); 203 (Old
Age Insurance); 28 (Employment System of General
Booth).
Brookings, 160 (Employment System of General Booth); 168
(Municipal Aid for Unemployed).

¹ See Bibliography for complete titles of books. Each general reference contains special references on the subject. Almost all of these questions are treated also in Bliss's *Encyclopedia of Social Reform*.

5. Socialism is the best solution of our labor problems.
Shurter, 170 and 176. Brookings, 129.
 6. The United States ought to own and control the coal mines of the country.
Intercollegiate Debates, I, 435.
 7. The Federal Government should construct all irrigation works.
Shurter, 69. Brookings, 144.
 8. In American municipalities of 25,000 or over, a tax on the rental value of land exclusive of improvements should be substituted for the general property tax.
Intercollegiate Debates, II, 127. *Debater's Handbook* (Single Tax).
Shurter, 117. Craig, 250.
Ringwalt, 202. Brookings, 120.
- II. Democratic *versus* Representative Government.
1. The initiative and referendum should be adopted in all states.
Debater's Handbook. *Intercollegiate Debates*, II, 283.
Thomas, 166. Carpenter, 91.
Robbins, 121. Ringwalt, 50.
Intercollegiate Debates, I, 67. Shurter, 242.
 2. The direct primary should be used in nominating all candidates for elective offices in the state.
Intercollegiate Debates, III, 43. Carpenter, 87.
Shurter, 158 and 161. Robbins, 158.
Debater's Handbook.
 3. Judges should be subject to recall.
Debater's Handbook. Shurter, 246.
Carpenter, 143.
 4. Judicial decisions should be subject to recall by the people.
Debater's Handbook. *Intercollegiate Debates*, IV, 61.
- III. Labor *versus* Capital.
1. The movement of organized labor for the closed shop should receive the support of public opinion.
Debater's Handbook. *Intercollegiate Debates*, I, 261.
Thomas, 194. *Intercollegiate Debates*, III,
Shurter, 211. 185.

2. Trade Unions, as they now exist, are, on the whole, beneficial to society in the United States.

Debater's Handbook. Carpenter, 118.
 Shurter, 1. Brookings, 151.
Intercollegiate Debates, I, 201.

3. Capital and Labor should be compelled to settle their disputes in legally established courts of arbitration.

Debater's Handbook. Carpenter, 131 and 139.
 Ringwalt, 210. Shurter, 142.
 Brookings, 162 and 197.

4. The issuing of injunctions by federal courts in labor disputes should be forbidden by Congress.

Ringwalt, 219. *Intercollegiate Debates*, I, 129.
 Shurter, 85. Thomas, 188.

5. It would be advisable to apply minimum wage legislation in the field of the sweated industries of the United States, constitutionality waived.

Intercollegiate Debates, III, 83. Shurter, 182.

6. The State of X has a better child labor law than the State of Y.

Debater's Handbook. Shurter, 150.

7. Foreign immigration to the United States should be restricted by the imposition of an educational test.

Thomas, 196 and 198. Craig, 206.
 Ringwalt, 31. Robbins, 100.
 Brookings, 68. Shurter, 16, 90, 220.
Intercollegiate Debates, I, 165.

8. Our present policy of excluding the Chinese from this country is unjustifiable.

Shurter, 9. Thomas, 176.
 Ringwalt, 42. Brookings, 73.
 Robbins, 204.

IV. Centralization *versus* the Division of Power.

1. The parliamentary form of government is better adapted to the needs of a progressive and democratic nation than the presidential form.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 367. Brookings, 37 and 40.

Intercollegiate Debates, III, Thomas, 164.
241. Shurter, 144.

Intercollegiate Debates, IV, 1.

2. Judges of superior courts and judges of the courts of appellate jurisdiction of the states should gain office by appointment of the state executive.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 345.

3. The short ballot should be adopted in state, county, and municipal elections.

Intercollegiate Debates, II, 319. Shurter, 132.

4. A commission form of government should be adopted by our states.

The Unicameral Legislature. University of Oklahoma and
the University of Kansas.

5. Our cities should adopt the commission plan of municipal government.

Debater's Handbook. Shurter, 58 and 258.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 461. Robbins, 57.

Intercollegiate Debates, II, 363.

6. The executive appointments of a city mayor should be independent of council confirmation.

Shurter, 104.

Brookings, 49.

V. Federal *versus* State Authority.

1. The power of the Federal Government should be paramount to that of the states in the conservation of natural resources, limited to forests, water-power, and minerals.

Debater's Handbook. Shurter, 83.

Intercollegiate Debates, II, 235. Robbins, 65.

2. A national prohibition law should be enacted — constitutionality granted.

Thomas, 184.

Brookings, 172 and 176.

Robbins, 177.

Shurter, 24 and 26.

Craig, 94.

NOTE. — The state issue is prohibition *versus* regulation.

3. The Constitution of the United States should be amended to provide for woman suffrage.

Debater's Handbook.

Robbins, 196.

Shurter, 38.

Craig, 127.

Ringwalt, 8.

Brookings, 8.

NOTE.—Woman suffrage as a national *versus* a state issue is new and therefore is not treated in the general references.

4. A progressive inheritance tax should be levied by the Federal Government.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 141.

Bliss, 621.

Shurter, 227.

5. The Fifteenth Amendment should be repealed.

Thomas, 168.

Ringwalt, 17.

Robbins, 168.

Shurter, 109.

Carpenter, 65.

Brookings, 3 and 6.

6. The Federal Government should have control over national elections.

Shurter, 81.

Brookings, 1.

7. There should be Federal control of quarantine.

Shurter, 71.

Brookings, 146.

VI. Protection *versus* Free Trade.

1. Our policy should be shaped toward a gradual abandonment of the protective tariff.

Debater's Handbook.

Ringwalt, 95.

Thomas, 172.

Brookings, 96, 99, 110, 115.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 111.

Craig, 160.

Intercollegiate Debates, II,

Carpenter, 23, 28, 33, 37.

149, 185.

Shurter, 124, 127, 129, 185.

2. The United States should adopt the policy of entering into reciprocal trade treaties with foreign nations.

Debater's Handbook.

Thomas, 178.

Shurter, 164 and 214.

Brookings, 102.

Ringwalt, 105 and 113.

3. The Federal Government should grant financial aid to ships

engaged in our foreign trade and owned by citizens of the United States.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 405. Carpenter, 14.
Shurter, 194. Thomas, 178.
Ringwalt, 121. Brookings, 107.
Robbins, 189.

4. Foreign built ships should be admitted to American registry, free of duty.

Shurter, 191. Brookings, 104.

5. Corporations engaging in interstate commerce should be required to take out a Federal charter.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 39. Shurter, 92, 140, 239.
Intercollegiate Debates, I, 147. Ringwalt, 131.
Intercollegiate Debates, IV, Carpenter, 1.
149 and 189. Craig, 327.
Brookings, 134. Thomas, 182.

VII. The United States as a World Power.

1. The Monroe Doctrine should be abandoned by the United States.

Shurter, 55. Thomas, 192 and 198.
Ringwalt, 84. *Debater's Handbook*.
Carpenter, 59. *Intercollegiate Debates* I, 223.

2. The United States should increase its navy.

Debater's Handbook. *Intercollegiate Debates*, I, 293.
Thomas, 176. Shurter, 18.
Brookings, 78.

3. The United States should grant the Philippine Islands independence before the passing of another generation.

Robbins, 146. Shurter, 52.
Carpenter, 42 and 55. Ringwalt, 75.

VIII. Community *versus* Individual Welfare.

1. Capital punishment should be abolished.

Debater's Handbook. Shurter, 32.
Thomas, 184. Brookings, 57.
Robbins, 44.

2. In all jury trials, the concurrence of nine, or three-fourths of the total number of jurors, should be sufficient for the rendering of a decision.

Intercollegiate Debates, III, 313. Brookings, 55.

Shurter, 30.

IX. Miscellaneous Issues.

1. The pension policy of the United States should be condemned.

Shurter, 100.

Brookings, 75.

2. All states should require an educational qualification for suffrage.

Intercollegiate Debates, I, 243. Ringwalt, 25.

Shurter, 114.

3. A reasonable property qualification should be made the basis of municipal suffrage.

Shurter, 112.

Brookings, 11.

Thomas, 204.

4. The naturalization laws of the United States should be made more stringent.

Shurter, 14.

Thomas, 188.

Ringwalt, 1.

APPENDIX VII

List of Subjects for Persuasive Speeches

SCHOOL LIFE

1. Discuss "Our Eleven" (or "Our Nine," "Our Basket-ball Team," "Our Tennis Champions," "Our Debaters," "Our Track Men") in such a way as to secure a large attendance at the next meet.
2. Seek the support of the students for your school paper.
3. Urge the students to try out for some school activity, such as an athletic team, debate squad, or musical organization.
4. Present to the Board of Education your school's need for a better athletic field (or gymnasium).
5. Present to the voters of your district or city the need of a bond issue for a new school building.
6. Ask the members of the student body to buy Red Cross stamps.
7. Make a nominating speech in which you try to persuade the students to vote for your candidate for student body president (or other officer).
8. Urge your fellow students to write school songs and yells.
9. Advertise the Senior play.
10. Persuade your fellow students to contribute articles to a fair to raise money for a scholarship fund.
11. Try to induce the student body of some neighboring high school to join your debating league (or athletic association).
12. As an alumnus, appeal to the alumni association to place in the school some memorial of a favorite instructor who has died.
13. Urge the members of some adult organization to attend a public speaking contest in your school.
14. Present before the student body the advantages to be derived from the study of some high-school subject.

OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL

1. Solicit from a lady a subscription to a magazine.
2. Persuade a lady traveler that your town or vicinity is a good place in which to build a home.
3. Persuade a stranger that your home town is a good place in which to establish a business.
4. Talk to the Young People's Society of your church on "Our Duty in Regard to the Building Fund."
5. Solicit funds for sufferers in flood, fire, or war.
6. Solicit subscriptions before a merchants' organization for some city improvement (park, lake, etc.).
7. Present to a teacher or a school board the merits of some text-book.
8. Present before a woman's club the merits of some article of domestic use.
9. Try to sell a lot to a Y. M. C. A. building committee.
10. Present before a grange the merits of an improved farming implement.
11. Try to secure an endowment for a small college.
12. As a member of a woman's club, urge the society to work for the more careful supervision of moving picture performances.
13. As a member of a woman's club, urge early Christmas shopping.
14. As a citizen, make an appeal for the preservation of a historic landmark.
15. As the chairman of the committee on foreign missions, appeal to the members of your church to increase their subscriptions.
16. Try to persuade a group of people to form an organization (farmers' union, labor union, Mothers' Club, Boy Scouts, Girls' Missionary Society, Merchants' Association).
17. Try to persuade women teachers to combine to secure salaries equal to those of men.
18. Urge a body of citizens to vote for (or against) some measure which is before the public (prohibition, abolition of capital punishment, etc.).
19. Try to persuade an audience of workingmen that a strike is unprofitable.

APPENDIX VIII

List of Eulogies for Study

Reed's *Modern Eloquence*.

- Anderson, M. B., *Genius and Achievement of Morse*, 7: 40.
Austin, Alfred, *Chaucer*, 7: 45.
Birrell, A., *Dr. Johnson's Personality*, 7: 87.
Blackburn, Joseph C. S., *John C. Breckenridge*, 7: 113.
Brooks, Phillips, *Character of Abraham Lincoln*, 7: 137.
Bryant, William Cullen, *Sir Walter Scott*, 7: 155.
Choate, Rufus, *On the Death of Webster*, 7: 216.
Clark, Champ, *Aaron Burr*, 7: 230.
Curtis, George William, *James Russell Lowell*, 7: 255.
Dolliver, J. P., *Robert Emmet*, 7: 363.
Everett, Edward, *Adams and Jefferson*, 8: 439.
Farrar, F. W., *General Grant*, 8: 464.
Fiske, John, *Columbus, the Navigator*, 8: 490.
Graves, J. T., *Henry W. Grady*, 8: 590.
Hugo, Victor, *Voltaire*, 8: 710.
Ingalls, J. J., *Eulogy on Benjamin Hill*, 8: 721.
Lamar, L. Q. C., *Charles Sumner*, 8: 767.
Longfellow, H. W., *Washington Irving*, 8: 786.
McKinley, William, *Characteristics of Washington*, 9: 845.
McKinley, William, *American Patriotism*, 9: 847.
Morris, Gouverneur, *Alexander Hamilton*, 9: 887.
Olney, Richard, *John Marshall*, 9: 932.
Prentiss, Sargent, *Lafayette*, 9: 971.
Rosebery, Lord, *Robert Burns*, 9: 1007.
Stedman, E. C., *Work of Robert Louis Stevenson*, 9: 1098.
Stubbs, Charles William, *Shakespeare as a Prophet*, 9: 1104.
Warner, C. D., *George William Curtis, Litterateur*, 9: 1130.
Watterson, Henry, *Francis Scott Key*, 9: 1143.

Depew's *Library of Oratory*.

- Bellows, H. W., *At the Funeral of William Cullen Bryant*, 8: 454.
 Blaine, James G., *Oration on Garfield*, 11: 282.
 Brooks, Phillips, *Abraham Lincoln*, 13: 38.
 Chapin, Edwin Hubbell, *Eulogy on Horace Greeley*, 8: 475.
 Choate, Joseph Hodges, *Rufus Choate*, 12: 56.
 Choate, Rufus, *Eulogy on Daniel Webster*, 6: 294.
 Cleveland, Grover, *Eulogy on William McKinley*, 13: 155.
 Curtis, George William, *Eulogy on Wendell Phillips*, 10: 346.
 Dallas, George Mifflin, *Eulogy on Andrew Jackson*, 6: 25.
 Depew, Chauncey Mitchell, *Celebration of General Grant's Birthday*, 12: 324.
 Farrar, Frederick William, *Eulogy on General Grant*, 12: 12.
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Webster, Daniel, *Adams and Jefferson*, 10: 3848.
Wirt, William, *Death of Jefferson and Adams*, 10: 3905.

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List of Birthdays

January

Edmund Burke.....	12
Benjamin Franklin.....	17
Daniel Webster.....	18
Lord Byron.....	22
Robert Burns.....	25
James G. Blaine.....	31

February

Horace Greeley.....	3
Charles Dickens.....	7
John Ruskin.....	8
Thomas Edison.....	11
Abraham Lincoln.....	12
George Washington.....	22
James Russell Lowell.....	22
George W. Curtis.....	24
Henry W. Longfellow.....	26
Victor Hugo.....	26

March

William Dean Howells.....	1
David Livingstone.....	19

April

Washington Irving.....	3
John Burroughs.....	3
William Wordsworth.....	7
Henry Clay.....	12
Charles H. Parkhurst.....	17

John Muir.....	21
Friedrich Fröbel.....	21
William Shakespeare.....	23
Edwin Markham.....	23
Ulysses S. Grant.....	27

May

John James Audubon.....	4
Robert Browning.....	7
William H. Seward.....	16
Henry Grady.....	17
William Lloyd Garrison.....	24
Ralph Waldo Emerson.....	25
Louis Agassiz.....	28
Patrick Henry.....	29

June

Harriet Beecher Stowe.....	14
Henry Ward Beecher.....	24

July

Nathaniel Hawthorne.....	5
Henry D. Thoreau.....	12
William M. Thackeray.....	19

August

Percy Bysshe Shelley.....	4
Alfred Tennyson.....	5
Sir Walter Scott.....	15
Bret Harte.....	25
Oliver Wendell Holmes.....	29

September

Eugene Field.....	2
John Marshall.....	24
Irving Bacheller.....	26

October

Thomas B. Macaulay.....	25
John Keats.....	29

November

Andrew D. White.....	2
William Cullen Bryant.....	3
Thomas Bailey Aldrich.....	11

Robert Louis Stevenson.....	13
Wendell Phillips.....	29
Mark Twain.....	30

December

Thomas Carlyle.....	4
John Greenleaf Whittier.....	7
John Milton.....	9
Phillips Brooks.....	13
Matthew Arnold.....	24
William E. Gladstone.....	29
Rudyard Kipling.....	30

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Statue*, 12: 307.

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APPENDIX XI

Oration Subjects ¹

1. Educational Waste. — The student should be led early in life to discover that for which he is fitted.
2. Shackles of the Dead. — We are retarded by certain traditions.
3. Our Debt to Agitators. — We owe progress in civilization to the courage of the few.
4. Immigration and Democracy. — American ideals are endangered; or America is the land of opportunity.
5. Invisible Government. — The boss, as an outgrowth of our check and balance system, can be dethroned only by the centralization of power.
6. The Waste of War. — Whom the gods wish to destroy, they first make mad.
7. Education, the Foundation of Democracy. — The greater the power in the hands of the people the more necessary becomes the discussion of public questions.
8. Marshall and the Federal Constitution. — His great service was to adjust the delicate balance between national and state rights.
9. Another "Irrepressible Conflict": Labor and Capital. — So long as there is a privileged class, the question will not be settled.
10. Christian Unity. — The principle of modern business coöperation should be applied in the field of religion.
11. The Civic Service of Great Poets. — By expressing the best sentiments of the people, they have strengthened and moved them to action.
12. The New Penology. — The aim is to reform the criminal while protecting society.

¹ Other subjects will be found in J. Berg Esenwein's *How to Attract and Hold an Audience* and in Shurter's *The Rhetoric of Oratory*.

13. The Spoken Word. — The pen is not mightier than the tongue.
14. The Man of the Hour. — The man who is fitted to lead at a time of crisis is the one who has the spirit of service.
15. The Conqueror. — The hero of to-day is he who conquers ignorance.
16. The Quest for the Unknown. — It has inspired explorers, scientists, and inventors.
17. A Conspiracy against the People. — The liquor interests and other privileged classes combine to rob the people.
18. "Fear Ye Not." — Fear, which has limited man throughout the ages, can be overcome by the consciousness that we do God's will.
19. Booker Washington, the Father of His People. — He solved the race problem by teaching his people the dignity of service.
20. Sell All that Thou Hast. — Every great gain demands a loss.

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